

370.973 H325S c1

Hart, Albert Bushnell, 1854  
Studies in American education  
R.W.B. JACKSON LIBRARY

OISE CIR



3 0005 00020 3870

THE LIBRARY

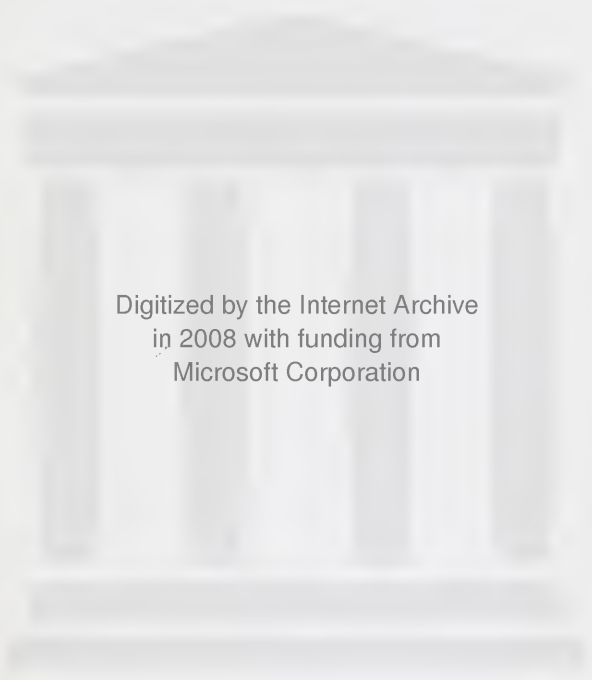
The Ontario Institute  
for Studies in Education

Toronto, Canada



X





Digitized by the Internet Archive  
in 2008 with funding from  
Microsoft Corporation



Studies  
in  
American Education

^ BOOKS BY  
**Albert Bushnell Hart.**

---

EPOCH MAPS ILLUSTRATING AMERICAN HISTORY. Oblong limp cloth, 14 maps, 50 cents *net*.

PRACTICAL ESSAYS ON AMERICAN GOVERNMENT. Crown 8vo, \$1.50.

STUDIES IN AMERICAN EDUCATION. Crown 8vo.

---

**Edited by Albert Bushnell Hart.**

EPOCHS OF AMERICAN HISTORY. Each volume, small 8vo, \$1.25.

I. THE COLONIES. 1492-1750. By REUBEN G. THWAITES. With four maps.

II. FORMATION OF THE UNION. 1750-1829. By ALBERT BUSHNELL HART. With five maps.

III. DIVISION AND REUNION. By WOODROW WILSON. With five maps.

---

LIBRARY EDITION, 3 volumes in box, cloth, gilt top, \$4.00.

---

LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.,  
NEW YORK AND LONDON.



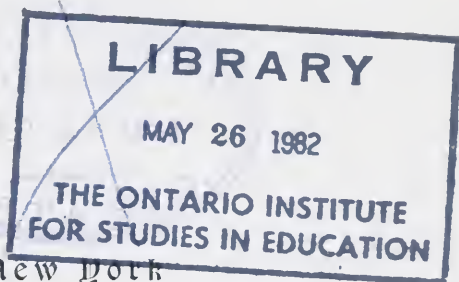
Studies  
in  
American Education

BY

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART, PH.D.

OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY

*Author of "Introduction to the Study of Federal Government,"  
"Practical Essays on American Government," "Guide  
to the Study of American History," etc.*



New York

LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.

AND LONDON

1895

6953

COPYRIGHT, 1895, BY

LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.

STORAGE

99792



## Preface.

---

THE six essays which make up this volume have been prepared at various times and deal with a variety of subjects. Nevertheless there is between them a thread of connection and relation. They all are based upon two fundamental ideas: that education is substantially one from beginning to end, so that the same or similar methods may be applied throughout; and that teachers of every grade and subject have a common interest and may learn from each other. They are the outcome of a desire to make some small contribution to the great common fund of experience.

That so many of these essays deal with the problems of the primary and secondary schools needs no apology. Every American must feel an interest in the systems which reach the greatest number of pupils, and lay the foundations for later study. A short service in the Cambridge School Committee has taught something of the aims and practical difficulties of primary and secondary education.

By the courtesy of the editors of the *Acad-*  
(v)

*emy* (Syracuse), *Atlantic*, *Chautauquan*, *Educational Review*, and *School Review*, articles are here reprinted which first appeared in those journals; but the opportunity of revision has not been neglected, and, so far as possible, each essay has been brought down to date.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 15, 1895.

## Table of Contents.

---

	PAGE.
I. HAS THE TEACHER A PROFESSION? . . . . .	1
<i>School Review</i> , January, 1893.	
II. REFORM IN THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS. . . . .	22
<i>Educational Review</i> , October, 1892.	
III. UNIVERSITY PARTICIPATION — A SUBSTITUTE FOR UNIVERSITY EXTENSION. . . . .	49
<i>Educational Review</i> , June, 1893.	
IV. HOW TO STUDY HISTORY. . . . .	75
<i>Chautauquan</i> , October, 1893.	
V. HOW TO TEACH HISTORY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS. . . . .	91
<i>Academy</i> (Syracuse), September, October, 1887.	
VI. THE STATUS OF ATHLETICS IN AMERICAN COL- LEGES. . . . .	122
<i>Atlantic Monthly</i> , July, 1890.	
INDEX. . . . .	147



## I.

### Has the Teacher a Profession?

---

NEARLY fifty years ago an eminent professor in New England, then occupying a chair of History, got into a controversy over a depreciatory article which he had written about Kosuth, the popular hero of the day; though his criticism was probably just, the feeling aroused was so strong that it was deemed expedient to transfer him to the chair of "Natural Religion and Moral Philosophy." A squib expressed the popular disapproval as follows: "Professor B. was made a Professor of History because he did not know history; but is now a Professor of Morals because he cannot tell the truth."

The anecdote illustrates the lack of confidence of Americans in professional teachers; but the same feeling exists toward many other professions. For instance, when it became necessary to erect a capitol for the nation in 1800 it was designed, says Henry Adams, "by Dr. William Thornton, an English physician, who in the course of two weeks' study at the Phila-

delphia Library gained enough knowledge of architecture to draw an exterior elevation. But when Thornton was forced to look for some one to help him over his difficulty, Jefferson could find no competent native American, and sent for Latrobe. Jefferson considered himself a better architect than either of them, and had he been a professor of materia medica at Columbia College, the public would have accepted his claim as reasonable." Wherever we turn we find the same notion, that even in technical matters one man is as good as another; house-painters design buildings, surveyors build bridges, and war correspondents write history. Even when we touch the most delicate and complicated of all human devices, the machinery of government, we find deeply embedded in the popular mind the principle of rotation in office; that is, Americans hold not only the belief that the inexperienced man is as good as the expert, but also the conviction that he is a great deal better.

For this state of things there are two principal causes. In the development of a new country the settlers have had to be masters of many trades; and the man who could clear land, break oxen, build a wagon, shoe a horse, repair a roof, keep a tavern, and settle a dispute, not unnaturally felt that he could also invent cotton machinery, make laws, and teach school. Even



the division and subdivision of labor has not as yet been effectual in breaking up this idea that any man can do anything. The other cause is one which tends rather to grow than to diminish; it is hard for Americans to understand that it is possible for men to be politically equal while intellectually unequal. The "practical man" considers himself an unteachable master in his own field, and at the same time a better judge of professional matters than the expert who has spent his life in acquiring technical knowledge. On the other hand, the "practical man" has the utmost contempt for any application to his pursuits of those generalities founded on long experience which he calls "theory." A few years ago, in the enlightened city of Boston, the trustees of the Public Library applied their business common-sense to the construction of a new building, and declined to consult any experienced librarian as to the suitability of their plans. These practical men have produced a magnificent monument, with insufficient windows, and were able to come within almost a million dollars of their own estimate.

That the mass of Americans do not appreciate expert knowledge is shown in part by the common use of the word "technical" as nearly synonymous with impracticable; and still more by the status of the recognized "learned professions." The ministry is the oldest of them,

and long the most respected ; yet laymen consider their knowledge of biblical history and philology so adequate that they try for heresy learned scholars who disagree with them. The profession of law was looked on with suspicion and dislike in colonial times, and owes its present standing chiefly to its great influence over legislation, and to the selection of judges from its ranks. No established profession meets with less real consideration than the medical ; a few years ago, in the populous city of Cleveland, the physician with the largest practice was an ignorant German, who never could be induced to show any diploma, and who diagnosed diseases by examining the palms of his patients' hands. The regular officers of the army and navy were suspected of "book-learning" at the beginning of the Civil War, and it was only the absolute necessity of the case which allowed them to come forward and vindicate their status as superior to the untrained volunteers. Along with them, engineers and scientific men are somewhat grudgingly admitted to possess a distinct professional status.

What is the teacher's place? How far does the public recognize him as one entitled to confidence and consultation, because learned in a calling of great benefit to the community? Three illustrations drawn from personal experience may suffice to show how the teachers are

regarded, though by far the largest body of educated men and women in the country. A person, a foreigner, who had for some months rendered practical services in the writer's kitchen, one day asked the lady of the house whether her husband "had any real profession." The wife of another member of the teaching staff in Cambridge, one day remarked that "she never could see what President Eliot could find to do." A young friend, who had been a "professor" in an immature college in the Southwest, recently gave out that he thought of "going into the education business." It appeared that his plan was to start a school, and then personally to "drum" whole cities for patrons—or, perhaps one might say, for "customers."

What is the reason of this attitude toward knowledge? Savages despise experts because they have no conception of any knowledge or power except what they themselves possess; so the barbarian Gaul plucked the Roman senator by the beard, because to him he was only a weak old man. The Romans themselves cared little for learning, because they could not see the value of knowledge which was not directly intended to advance the material power and wealth of the nation. Americans are rather Romans than barbarians; we value some kinds of experts; we allowed forty acres at the

Columbian Exposition for the display of the cattle-breeders' art—and two acres for a display of education.

Perhaps, after all, these are extreme illustrations of the relative proportions of material and intellectual interests. Perhaps we may find the status of teachers more important than we imagine. Let us proceed to consider three points in regard to it: First, how far teachers practise a profession; second, how far they are recognized as experts; and, third, what may be done to improve the profession.

Among the principal marks of a profession are: that it should be a permanent calling taken up as a life-work; that it should require special and intellectual training; and that there should be among its members a feeling of common interest and some organization. When we attempt to apply these criteria to the teachers there is certainly some doubt whether we form a profession or no. The teacher's calling is well known to be less permanent than that of others. For more than a century teaching has been considered in this country, what it could hardly be in any other land, a makeshift for young men who expect to enter law or medicine. Undoubtedly this system of combining self-education with the education of others has made it possible for many young men to climb the difficult lower stairs of recog-

nized professions. Two presidents of the United States—John Adams and James A. Garfield—began their career in this fashion. The conditions are now changing. The colleges used to have a system of vacations which permitted students to teach a part of every year. Perhaps that was as good a way of earning money as waiting at summer hotels or acting as guide at a World's Fair; but the colleges no longer suffer the interruption. More and more young men enter upon teaching with the expectation that they will follow it steadily; and so far forth the profession gains ground. On the other hand, there are in America large bodies of women teachers; and to them no profession has the same permanence as to a man; the "epidemic of matrimony" may make inroads on the teaching force in every grade. A few months ago the President of the oldest and one of the best women's colleges in America was in a comical state of mingled wrath and amusement because one of his professors had resigned her place, without any previous notice, and only a few days before the beginning of the college year, in order to be married. As the sage Billings observed, "Calico of all kinds is the child of circumstances."

When we come to technical training the teachers stand below other professions. Only very recently have there been opportunities in

America for a course corresponding to that of the law, medical, or theological student, or of the West Point cadet. We must not leave out of account the system of normal schools which has done so much to disabuse Americans of the idea that any fairly intelligent person is suitable as a teacher. It seems, however, that those schools at present occupy the same position as the old medical schools, which gave diplomas after attendance on two courses of lectures. The normal schools have tried to do two things at once, and have done neither of them with complete success ; they find it necessary to offer a general course because of the imperfect preliminary education of many students who come to them ; and at the same time they have tried to give a technical training : the general course has been on too narrow a basis, and the practical part has been taught too much by lecture and demonstration, and too little by actual practice. Nor do the college courses in pedagogy entirely fill the requirement of higher professional training ; they can test the general acquirements of students ; they can point out the development of the human mind and suggest the best ways of participating in that development ; they can give a wide outlook over previous experiments in education ; their great danger is of running into what the Germans call " Methodologic." Practical

training in teaching seems like that in another science which makes the colleges known throughout the Union—the science of football. The good teacher needs strength and quickness of mind ; he needs an acquaintance with the rules of his road ; above all he needs personal contact with the problems of his calling. It is impossible to educate a teacher without associating him in some way with those who are to be taught, just as it is impossible to make a good football eleven by studying the rules of the game and looking on from the edge of the crowd of spectators. A normal school or a college course without actual classes of children is like football practice with a dummy in a gymnasium.

The third element of professional training, permanent organization and association, has made great advances in the last few years. Teachers of similar grades have gathered in clubs and meetings ; those of various grades have met in joint conferences and associations ; the whole body of teachers, through their organization in the National Educational Association, have sought to study and to solve their common problems.

Such, then, seems to be the opinion which we teachers hold of our calling ; it is not always permanent ; we are not always well trained ; but we have a strong and growing feeling of

*esprit de corps*. What does the community think of us? In one respect at least teachers are looked up to as professional experts; they are generally considered men of learning. There is a much greater respect throughout the country for educated men than they themselves observe. Not long ago a young lawyer in New York City was designated as an agent of a municipal reform association at one of the polling-places in the lower part of the city. On appearing he found his rivals disposed to hustle and maltreat him; presently "Paddy Divver," the renowned police justice, appeared as chief-tain of the opposite host; on learning who the young stranger was, and finding that he was an educated man—and withal an agreeable fellow—Paddy magnanimously took him under his wing; issued strict orders that he should not be molested; gave him an excellent Tammany lunch; and parted with an assurance of his personal friendship. Yet he had nothing to gain by his hospitality except the good-will of the man whose advantages he respected. From the district school where "teacher says so" is a decisive argument in domestic affairs, to the gentleman who has discovered an infallible means of predicting the weather and asks the Board of Overseers of Harvard College to test it and certify to his fame, there is a disposition to look upon educators as more learned than



other professional men. This privilege, however, applies only to literary subjects, treated in a general manner; we are allowed to state the height of the Washington Monument; but to apply the character of Washington as a criterion for modern statesmen is a "descent into politics."

What we desire is not that people should look upon us as encyclopædias of learning, but that they should ask and take our advice upon strictly professional matters, such as school organization, courses of study, and school methods. The real difficulty here is the close connection between the public schools and the State. The teachers are not considered members of an independent profession, asserting their own standards, but as employees of the Government; they are not retained like lawyers, but hired like letter-carriers. Furthermore, since education is a public matter, it is often considered the gift of the State, to be divided per capita among the children in such a manner that the bright and dull shall get the same amount, in the same time, under the same system. This pernicious notion goes very deep. Congress looks upon the scientific men in the Smithsonian and instructors in government schools as persons to take orders and not to make suggestions. Teachers throughout the country have little influence over the organiza-

tion of their own schools, and still less over the selection of their own associates.

On this point our position is more difficult than that of other professions; lawyers have a bar examination, which they themselves administer; physicians, in the older States, have a high professional standard of education, and will eventually insist upon a State examination for neophytes. We are betrayed by our own higher institutions; one may count almost on one hand the colleges, and even universities, in which the faculties are the main-spring of the system. In Cornell, Columbia, Yale, and Harvard the faculty does decide on its own methods; and at Yale and Cornell on its own members. The success of those great universities is in part due to the independence of their teachers. Even the Overseers of Harvard University, though enlightened and public-spirited men, chosen by the suffrage of the graduates, have very little control over that university. Had they more power, it is perhaps doubtful whether they would make the institution better; but they certainly would make it different. A few of the endowed schools have a faculty with power; but in public schools there is almost always an administrative system separate from the teachers. If the principal of the grammar-school never asks the opinion of his teachers; if the head-master of a high-school never takes

counsel with his subordinates, why should principals and masters expect to be consulted by school boards? Our idea of school organization is paternal; it suggests the Presbyterian's elaborate description of his own church government: "And thus you see," said he, "our General Assembly, our Synods, our Presbyteries form a system of wheels, working within wheels." "Yes," says a good Methodist brother, "and all these wheels to grind the people with."

It is true that the taxpayers raise the money, and that it is necessary for the public interest that they should have a voice in its expenditure; it is true that we need the criticism of the intelligent laymen. But our schools, and particularly the public schools, would be much better administered if the Boards of Education were content with supervising the Superintendent, and would give the teachers more voice in their own system; if Superintendents were content with superintending methods and would leave details to the masters; and if the masters would call their teachers into consultation.

In any case it is reasonable to ask that the opinions of the teachers may have weight in the details of the schools, and especially in the selection of studies. Here, if anywhere, experience and observation ought to tell, and

here we teachers are in part responsible for the defects of the present system. To be sure many of us are caught in the meshes of a system which we did not make, and against which we struggle. Nevertheless, teachers have been slow to show the evidence of life usual in other professions—eagerness on the part of the members to adopt improved methods and to extend them. The author of a legal treatise on a new system at once acquires reputation in the profession; the leading physician is usually the man who is most ready to test new discoveries; the more conservative profession of the ministry blossoms out with suggestions of institutional churches and other novel devices for extending its work. Teachers are too apt to look upon another teacher who points out flaws as a spy in the camp. We ought to be constantly suggesting improvements in our own work, and we ought to accept outside criticisms as an evidence of public interest. Woe to the schools in which teachers or administrators consider any part of the system “perfect!”

Nor is content with imperfection the only danger of the schools; a fixed and artificial system of education not only benumbs the teachers, it also creates a distrust in the minds of the public. Some very excellent and sincere educators have worked out elaborate theories in which the schools are fitted to-

gether like the trusses of a bridge; the primary schools, they tell us, are to teach a knowledge of things; the grammar-schools a knowledge of relations; the high-schools, applications of knowledge; and the work in each grade is to be arranged accordingly. Such wire-drawn formalism brings the school into discredit. The human mind develops on all sides at once; astronomy may be a suitable study for kindergartens, and word-building a useful exercise in graduate schools.

The most technical part of the teacher's work is his method of teaching; here again the profession suffers from itself. The general public feels that we use a lot of professional cant; that certain stock phrases are used to cover a plentiful lack of wit. The spirit of a profession may fairly be gauged by its periodicals; the lawyers, the doctors, the ministers discuss the technicalities of their professions in sober, dignified, and literary fashion. It must be confessed that many of the educational periodicals suggest inferior education; they abound in small gossip, in laudatory book notices, in free-and-easy conversational editorials. It would be unfair to hold the publishers wholly responsible for this sort of journals, because they adapt their wares to the markets. It must be the teachers who subscribe for, and support, what might not inappropriately be

called the "trade journals of education." One of our present encouragements is the establishment in the United States of several educational periodicals of the highest order, suitable exchanges for the best journals of other countries.

In what way may the professional status of the teacher be improved? That it is rising is shown in many ways, especially in the better provision for thorough training. The Normal Schools are improving; a scientific study of pedagogy is slowly gaining recognition as a part of university instruction; and now a third method is starting up, of which a special advantage is that it may be applied to teachers who have already begun their work. This is the system of training courses established for teachers by colleges and technical schools, and described in the essay in this volume, on "University Participation." The probable effect in bringing about a feeling of harmony and mutual interest between the colleges and schools is too evident to require discussion.

In some one of the three ways, by normal schools, courses in pedagogy, or practical training courses, greater professional advantages are obtainable; more than that, they are obtained. The planting of Johns Hopkins University, twenty years ago, has given a different trend to the preparation of teachers, especially

for the more advanced institutions. There is hardly a good college in the United States at present which will give any man a permanent appointment unless he has had special training in American or foreign universities, after finishing his college course. The principle is extending into secondary schools; and the time is not far different when a mastership in any good secondary school in New England can be had only by a person specially fitted for the work which he proposes to do. The influence is likely to spread still further, and we shall surely have a body of highly educated and trained teachers below the high-school. At this moment there are in the Cambridge grammar-schools several women who hold the degree of A.B. from a good college; and the number of such thoroughly educated teachers is certain to increase.

Our standing before the community may also be much improved by a less self-satisfied tone. We are engaged in an excellent and honorable calling; we have chosen it because we think it for us the best and the most useful; but teachers are entirely too apt to congratulate each other on the grandeur of their opportunities and the greatness of their sacrifices. We are not highly paid in comparison with our friends and class-mates who began the race with us; we are subject to vexatious uncer-

tainties as to tenure and promotion. But we have three months' vacation in the year; we have fixed salaries instead of fees or donation parties; and we are able to arrange much of our own time. We look, and are, a contented body of men and women; let us admit our content.

Another way to improve our position is to recognize the problem of education which lies before us. An esteemed correspondent from another State recently wrote: "I think we have touched the bottom of inequality and are now well on our way toward another grand equality. . . . One object of free public education should be to make men equal and not unequal." That proposition is in the wrong spirit. It is no part of our profession to reorganize the universe. We are put here, like the physicians, to take people as we find them, and to make the best that we can out of every one. A good practitioner treats a weak and sickly child as one requiring special attention; he thinks he is doing well if he brings him to the point where, by taking care of himself, he may thenceforth live, however simply and quietly. The stronger and more vigorous boy may be a subject for the sharper discipline of rough and hearty boyish sports. But if we wish to produce a transcendent character such as the stroke oar of a victorious crew, we must catch him early



and train him hard. There is no other profession that does not seek out the best young minds and give them the best opportunities that the country affords. We shall never be a profession if we do not take each child as we find him, and give him all the training that his mental powers allow, up to the point reached by our schools.

The status of teachers would be much improved if we could adopt the foreign system of a rigorous state examination, which could not be passed without special training, and without which no person could be appointed as teacher in any advanced school. Such a result is very difficult to accomplish: the bar has gained it; the medical men may reach it; the teachers, at least in some States, might bring it about if they themselves would clamor for it. Our system of schools conducted exclusively by local boards, with little suggestion and no control from the State, has great advantages; it promotes healthy rivalries, allows for peculiar circumstances and cultivates lively public interest. None of these advantages would be lost by a system of State examinations; the local boards and committee would still draw the plans and put up the structure of education, but they would be obliged to build with well-shaped materials.

The members of the profession are already

doing all that can be expected in the way of organization and association; the knowledge of improved methods spreads rapidly through teachers' associations, and through the better journals, from town to town and from State to State. What is now needed is to apply the principle of association so as to bring nearer together the teachers who are already nearest together; the teachers in one building, or in one city. This does not mean simply the outward contact of teachers' meetings, but the establishment of some kind of joint and several responsibility, some faculty system. The difficulties in the way of such a system are very serious. The adoption of departmental instruction in grammar-schools, though, perhaps, it would bring about new difficulties, would certainly help out this reform; but the real trouble is not so much a lack of organization as of enlightened public sentiment. Perhaps the problem may be solved by establishing in every city or county system of schools a Teachers' Council, chosen by the teachers themselves, and consulted by school boards on questions of organization and methods.

At present we are in the hands of that near-sighted giant, the Public; he moves us about like chessmen on a board; he is responsible for most of the evils which we have discussed. We feel toward him as the White Queen felt

---

when she was suddenly transported to the mantel-piece, and with her we cry out to our colleagues: "Mind the volcano!" But he is a good-natured and well-meaning giant, susceptible to good advice; he likes to see his creatures doing something, and is willing that they should improve. Good Public, give us elbow-room! Do not insist on uniformity, the great bane of American education! Do not make a solar system of our schools, with superintendents as force-giving suns, masters as light-reflecting planets, and teachers as automatic satellites or asteroids! Give us an opportunity to think, to suggest and to criticise, without our heads rolling off! We will repay you by preparing for our profession, practising it modestly, and constantly raising our own standards of efficiency. You give us your children to educate; give us more freedom, so as to educate them well!

## II.

### Reform in the Grammar-Schools.

---

UNTHINKING persons who look upon education in the United States perhaps suppose that, if the profession of teaching be unlike other professions, if it be not possible to set certain standards, or to maintain a definite professional spirit by the body of teachers, at least the methods of teaching and the choice of subjects are in general determined by the teachers. A brief experience in school administration has convinced the writer that this is a mistaken view.

Teachers have little influence in either of the two parts of the educational machinery—that which relates to the selection of teachers, or that which controls the subject-matter of education, such as the choice of studies and of textbooks, the preparation of courses of study, and the fixing of tests of proficiency. Except in a very few professional schools, particularly those of medicine, teachers usually have no voice in the selection of their fellows; the standards for admission into the profession are set and ad-

ministered by persons who have often never been teachers, and sometimes know very little of the art. The school boards and the trustees of secondary schools and colleges hold the keys to the gates which open to the pedagogue's career. It might be supposed that at least in the technical matters of curriculum and division of the time of pupils the teachers would have sway. So it is in many of the institutions of higher learning; college faculties and the teaching force of endowed schools settle their own problems. This is certainly not the case with the public schools.

If an analysis be made of the distribution of powers in the educational commonwealth, the most influential persons are the school superintendents; they are not always secure of their tenure, but they can usually introduce, immediately or gradually, any scheme of reform which does not involve the expenditure of more money, and which can be carried out with the teachers whom they are allowed to employ. Hence, perhaps the most encouraging thing in the recent movements for the improvement of grammar-school education is the interest taken by the best and most active superintendents throughout the country.

Next in point of power come the school boards. In some of the large cities these are political machines; in Cleveland the board be-

came so bad that by State enactment a new organization has been brought about in which the superintendent is made almost autocratic. Still, in many large cities, and in most smaller places, the school board is controlled by well-meaning and intelligent men; and in every board, good or bad, are some members well acquainted with the schools and eager to improve them. It is in the power of the school boards to force reforms upon unwilling superintendents; but they never can carry out great changes without the aid of the teachers.

The third moving force in the public schools is the "educators." These are sometimes men who have spent their lives in public-school work, sometimes private individuals, sometimes the principals of great secondary schools, or the presidents of colleges. They have better opportunities than most superintendents and members of boards of education to observe the workings of American education in all parts of the country and to compare them with foreign schools of the same grade. It is their mission to arouse the public to the need of reform.

The fourth source of educational energy is in the public at large. In the Northern and Western States there is little difficulty in raising money for good schools, and everywhere people are sincerely disappointed if they find their children going on year after year with little

progress. If the public can once be convinced that the expenditure of time and money on the public schools ought to produce a greater result, then reform can be brought about; but the details will always be settled primarily by the superintendents, and, in a less degree, by the school boards.

Fifth, and last, come the teachers, who are in the unfortunate position of exercising great responsibility without much opportunity to make their preferences felt. So far from constituting the moving force of the schools, they are helpless links in an endless educational chain, picking up one batch of children after another and carrying them in a direction which often they do not approve. So far from the teachers forming a profession, they are more like the employees of a great railroad. They have not built it, they do not control it; they may manage their train, but that train moves at a prescribed pace over a prescribed route, carrying a prescribed number of little passengers in each car.

In Cambridge, as elsewhere, we must reckon with all these forces, though the conditions are probably more favorable to a reform in public-school education than in many other cities. The number of children of school age was, in May, 1893, about twelve thousand six hundred, out of a total population of about eighty thousand; of these children five thousand five hun-

dred are in the grammar-schools. The school buildings are good, though by no means equal to those of many Western cities; the newer structures are well lighted and ventilated. The average expenditure per pupil throughout the schools was in 1893 \$18.51 for salaries, and about \$1.10 a year for the abundant free text-books and supplies, furnished by the city. The supervision is less elaborate than in many cities; up to 1892 one superintendent performed the whole duty, and now he has but one assistant, a lady. All the elements of school government have, however, been unusually well disposed toward making some change in the grammar-schools. The superintendent himself, once a principal in one of the grammar-schools of the city, has long been convinced that those schools were spending too much time and accomplishing too little. The school board acts entirely without reference to political parties, and although a series of accidents has brought in a large number of new members during the last five years, they have been persons willing to spend the necessary time to acquaint themselves with the needs of the schools. The element of warning and good counsel has been especially well represented in Cambridge. The officers of several teachers' associations are found among the Cambridge teachers; and the President of Harvard University has freely raised his voice



in criticism of the grammar-school system and of the Cambridge grammar-schools as an illustration of that system. It is difficult to say how far the public at large has been interested in the proposed changes ; there has certainly been no protest against them. The teachers, as soon as they understood that no change would be made without their co-operation, and without their having a previous opportunity to discuss the details and to suggest amendments, have taken a most gratifying interest in the whole matter.

As soon as the newly constituted school committee was organized, in January, 1892, a motion was made for the appointment of a special subcommittee to examine into the whole question of the time and subject-matter of the grammar-school curriculum. The committee embraced two of the most experienced and conservative members of the board, besides some younger and more impulsive spirits. It adopted the plan of holding a kind of invitation meeting. Thus into one session were introduced superintendents and teachers from those neighboring cities in which new methods and new subjects had been introduced. At another time the masters of the grammar-schools were invited to present their views with regard to shortening the grammar-school course. Again a delegation of teachers was called in to meet several experts in the new subjects which it

was proposed to introduce ; and all the members of the school board were at one time or another invited to sit with the committee and to take part in its deliberations. The purpose was that the committee might clearly understand the difficulties in the way of reform, and might put itself so far as possible in the place of those by whom new methods were to be carried out. Most of the objections were thus obviated by changes in the scheme, or at least had been considered before report was made. The result of the committee's labors, therefore, met with gratifying approval, and their recommendations were adopted, with a few verbal changes, precisely as they were made.

It was not difficult for the committee to make up their minds as to what ought to be accomplished in a grammar-school education. Children go to school less to learn than to learn how ; less to acquire a stock of ideas than to put ideas together. School training is very like gymnasium training ; people do not raise weights for the sake of driving clocks with them, but in order that they may raise heavier weights hereafter. Throughout American education too much stress has been laid upon acquisition, and too little on the development of power. What the Cambridge school board desires is to make out of its boys and girls

practical, sensible men and women, able to meet and decide the questions which come to them. But we have two very distinct classes of pupils in the grammar-schools: children who do not expect to go beyond the grammar-schools and children on their way to college. Of course the lower schools, the academies, high-schools, colleges, and universities are all engaged in different branches of the same pursuit; of course they must work together. Cambridge makes careful and very expensive provision for the preparation of boys and girls for college. Should the city begin below its Latin School, and make in the grammar-schools any sort of special provision for future college students? In the minds of the committee it seemed far more important to organize as good a course as possible for those who stop at the end of the grammar-schools. It seems likely that an improved course would also direct many children into the road toward higher education; but the determining motive has been the desire to furnish the best education possible to those who will have no other opportunity; to make the people's schools more popular because more effective, and to carry more children to the end of the grammar-school course.

Two problems now presented themselves which appeared to nullify each other. The experience of other cities and of other coun-

tries seemed to show that the Cambridge grammar-school course was too long. On the other hand, the schools have been urged in the last three or four years to cover more ground. To shorten the course seemed possible ; to increase it seemed possible ; could it both be shortened and increased ? A few months ago a young lady who was taking a civil-service examination in Cambridge, looking forward to a position under the city government, made the following written statement : " When a child I went to a primary school in Cambridge. As there were four teachers and four rooms, I was four years in passing through that school." It is literally true that, although the primary course required but three years, every child who went through that particular school at the time when she attended it was obliged to take an extra year, because it was more " convenient " than to break the four rooms up into three grades. Of late years such stifling applications of red tape have not been permitted ; nevertheless, until recently, it was not possible for any child, however quick, to finish a grammar-school course in Cambridge in less than six years, although in Western cities the same ground is commonly covered in five years. Experience has shown that six is by no means a magic number, since eighteen per cent. of our grammar-school pupils spent at least seven

years on the way. The school board has for some time sought to remedy this artificial system by authorizing masters to advance pupils by a process of "skipping." A bright child might thus be carried from the fourth direct into the second grade, leaving out the third grade; or, more commonly, small classes of "skippers" have been formed to do the work of three years in two. About thirty per cent. of the grammar-school graduates have taken advantage of this system, and about five per cent. have "skipped" twice. The result has been a practical variation of the course from four to seven years, according to the ability of the pupil. By an easy amplification of this principle it seemed possible to make the same allowance for individuals, but to make the course more regular and to avoid gaps left by the "skippers," this has been accomplished by a novel system devised by the superintendent, and put into effect for the first time in 1892. Two grammar-school courses are arranged side by side, one of them to require six years and the other four; but each of these courses is subdivided into two periods or forms. The combination of the lower quick-moving form of two years, and the upper quick-moving form makes a four-years' course. The combination of the lower quick-moving and the upper slow-moving form of three years, or *vice versa*, makes a five years' course. The combina-

tion of the two halves of the slow-moving division makes a six years' course. Thus, without reorganizing the schools, it is possible to make every reasonable allowance for the abilities and opportunities of children. A child who loses a year from sickness may make it up by going into the quick-moving division; a child who proves too delicate for that work may be transferred to the slower division; and such transfers are made at any time according to the discretion of the masters. The system has now had two years' trial and has justified the expectations of its advocates. The proportion of seven-years' pupils is sensibly reduced; and nearly half the children get through in five years or less.

Two objections may be suggested to this scheme. One is, that it will be necessary for teachers to have two grades in one room. This is not by any means a misfortune. In the country district schools it is well known that the younger children often learn the lessons of the older from hearing their recitations; the influence of one grade of children upon the other in city schools may be equally decided and valuable. The other objection is that the system produces irregularity and confusion. One of the chief educational officers of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts once said: "Unity in these things is desirable, not only because

unity of results requires it, but because the largest and truest progress can be secured in no other way. There should be unity also in the methods of teaching." So long as the Almighty does not make His children uniform, whether young or old, a system founded upon regularity must be evil. The attempt to compress into the same grade, pursuing the same studies, children who have been the same number of years in school, is an attempt which must result in silting up the inferior minds and in blunting the superior. The ideal system of teaching would be that of the old district schools and of some of the best private schools—to form a class whenever half a dozen children could be found of about the same degree of advancement, and to keep several classes in one room, for the sake of the mutual influence of the children on each other.

Nevertheless, it must be admitted that the scheme requires more care, thought, and supervision than an ordinary graded school. There are two ways in which much of the difficulty may be avoided. One is the so-called departmental system, by which one teacher will teach but one or a few subjects; it has been adopted in the Workingman's School in New York and elsewhere, and one of the masters of the Cambridge schools has desired to make a trial of it. While it seems likely that

this system, which is familiar in the gymnasia in Germany, will eventually be introduced, the experience of the schools which have tried it in this country is not wholly favorable. What the children gain in efficiency of teaching they sometimes lose from a weakened discipline. A different step has, therefore, been taken in Cambridge, to provide for the difficulty of handling the carefully classified pupils. In the large buildings "teachers without grade" have been appointed, who make up small classes of children deficient in particular subjects and bring them forward more rapidly than would be possible in the ordinary school-room. By a temporary shifting of teachers this will make it possible to look out for individual needs and to relieve the schools of the children who have been blocking the way by staying more years than was good for them. An advantage of the system is that it practically increases the capacity of the buildings, and is thus a saving to the taxpayer.

A third objection to the whole system ought to be considered, not because it has force, but because it is perhaps weighty in the minds of the public: it is that such variations in the schools are undemocratic. True democratic equality, however, consists in the right of every man to make the most of his natural powers. No social system can be arranged which does



not take cognizance of the difference of ability between man and man. The elastic arrangement is distinctly in the interest of poor but bright children, who may be brought forward more rapidly and may be better trained if some account be taken of their special abilities. It is the duty of the public schools to promote equality; but they promote it best, not by denying advantages to the fortunate part of the community, best endowed and in the most favorable circumstances, but by bestowing them and pressing them upon those whose active minds will never be properly improved except by giving them special attention.

The Cambridge schools are thus fully committed to a plan by which it is hoped that the average time in the grammar-schools will be five years or less. It has not been the purpose to diminish the amount of study at present required, because experience has shown that it may be well performed in five or even four years. The next question which arose was whether the same amount of energy and study may not be made more interesting and more stimulating by a rearrangement of work and the introduction of new subjects. The old curriculum of the Cambridge schools was simple, on the whole, reasonable, and certainly not excessive in amount. Reading was kept up through all the six grades, authorized readers continu-

ing through the eighth grade, and standard English authors being introduced in the seventh grade, half-way through the course. Spelling continued through four of the six grades with a spelling-book, besides the correction of written exercises from time to time. Formal grammar was taught with a text-book in all the grades. Geography ran throughout the course with poor text-books, and with more or less of the senseless superposition of maps upon artificial geometrical figures. Arithmetic continued throughout all the grades, but the more difficult and technical subjects were set aside to be added only at the discretion of the masters. This was then the work of the six years: reading, spelling, grammar, geography, and arithmetic, with the minor subjects of physiology, a little history, music, drawing, penmanship, and the use of the dictionary. Not much is here included besides the essentials of an intelligent existence: pupils left the grammar-schools able to read, to write, to cipher, to parse, with some notion of the earth's surface, and, it must be admitted, with considerable ability to express themselves cogently in the mother tongue. Instruction in the use of the English language has much improved in recent years, and already received great attention before the committee began its labors.

It was not apparent that any of these subjects

could be omitted ; it did seem, however, that a part of the six years might somehow be released. A great deal of time was spent in reviews. An eminent surgeon said of anatomy that it was a subject which you could not know until you had learned and forgotten it seven times ; possibly grammar-masters have some such principle in mind. In practice the reviews served, however, not so much to recall what had been learned by bright scholars, as to teach pupils what they ought to have learned in the grade below ; in Cambridge, as throughout the country, those scholars who least respond to the teacher usually get most of her time. The four and six years' plan has relieved the schools by separating out the scholars who really need review, so that the quicker division may go directly into new subjects. Again, the committee became satisfied that a great deal of time had been spent to little purpose in getting classes ready for examinations, and the school board voted that henceforth there shall be no stated examinations, and that promotions shall be made upon the record of the term work. These two reforms—putting bright pupils ahead into the subjects which they are able to take up, and the saving of unnecessary review preparatory to examination—left the schools more time than they had previously. Another saving was possible by simplifying the work,

particularly in arithmetic ; there is a great tendency on the part of teachers to emphasize this subject by giving long, complicated, and numerous problems instead of more simple examples. Another loss of time may be avoided by simplifying the study of language ; it does not seem necessary that intelligent children should for five successive years be taking up the principles of grammar. Surely what is necessary to remember may at last be learned ; whatever training comes from such subjects may at last be had ; and the pupils' minds may some time be turned to fresher and more interesting topics.

When in 1890 the suggestion was first thrown out that the grammar-schools were teaching too little, it was met with incredulity, with denial, and personal abuse. It has now been repeated, developed, and illustrated by so many eminent teachers, administrators, and heads of great systems of public education that the community accepts it, and even the teachers acknowledge it. In fact, the opposition to the proposed reform has sprung chiefly out of misapprehension ; when the grammar-school system was criticised, the grammar-school teachers felt that they were attacked ; whereas they, like the rest of the community, were sufferers from a system for which they could not be held responsible. The most important advance in

the subject was that made November 6, 1891, by the Association of Colleges in New England. Although the members of that body were all engaged in college teaching, their recommendation does not appear to have sprung from any desire to make the grammar-schools feeders for higher schools; they were interested in the public schools as citizens, and many of them as fathers of public-school children.

What shall be done with the time saved to the schools by cutting off examinations and tedious reviews and simplifying the subjects previously taught? The Association of Colleges in New England recommended that algebra and geometry be introduced into the grammar-schools. The Cambridge schools then included in their mathematical studies mental and written arithmetic throughout the six grades, and book-keeping. The book-keeping was in most cases of a simple kind, and it has been thought wise to abandon the pretentious and undeserved title and substitute the term, "simple personal and business accounts." Arithmetic has long been chosen as, on the whole, the principal subject in the grammar-schools, both because of its practical applications, and of the excellent training to the mind resulting from its precision. Yet in the ordinary study of arithmetic there has been too little development of the reasoning

powers; under poor teachers the rules have been learned and applied by rote. On the other hand, there are two mathematical subjects—algebra and geometry—in which training is the larger element; in one, algebra, the processes are closely akin to those of arithmetic. If a choice of new subjects must be made, it seems desirable to take geometry, because its point of view is different, and because the exactness of logical reasoning makes up for some of the loose habits of thought which children get in other subjects. Geometry, properly taught, is one of the most interesting of subjects, and it may readily be allied with drawing and with mensuration; the schools may thus teach in a more or less regular fashion the properties of geometrical forms, and the relations to each other of lines and angles. In one of the towns near Boston, in which that study has been introduced into the schools, the boys have developed an interesting practical application; they go about and offer to calculate the height of their neighbors' houses, by means of their simple instruments and formulæ. If this part of the school study be combined and organized, and made to advance from year to year, it will lead up by the most natural steps to the study of simple geometrical problems. The Cambridge school board has therefore adopted the study of geometry as obligatory in the gram-

mar-schools. Some of the teachers hesitated on this point, and some of them preferred the teaching of algebra. The board has therefore authorized any master who so chooses, to introduce algebra in the last year in connection with arithmetic.

Next come reading and language. Every well-educated man needs the knowledge of some language besides his own ; but in America there is not the same practical necessity for the use of modern languages as abroad. We have but two neighboring countries in which English is not spoken, Cuba and Mexico ; and few Americans have any occasion to use Spanish. Still, nothing surpasses the study of foreign languages in the effect upon one's own vocabulary and mode of speech ; and no man who desires to use the thoughts of current writers on scientific or technical subjects can get on without French and German. Hence it has been suggested that the study of some language should be introduced into the grammar-schools, and the only convenient tongues are Latin, French, and German. Any one of these may be pursued with advantage by American children, as they are by boys and girls of the same age in foreign countries ; while it may be no argument to say that because a subject is studied abroad it ought to be studied in America, we surely cannot admit that American children are less ca-

pable or develop less rapidly than those in foreign countries. If an American boy and a German boy were cast away upon the same desert island, the American would take care of himself and save his comrade's life; but if an American young man of twenty be put side by side with a German young man of the same age, he finds himself inferior in the power to deal with new problems in science, in logic, or in the workings of the human mind; whereas, with his better start and surroundings, he ought to excel. His greater experience in practical matters, in self-protection, in money-making, ought not to interfere with skill in the use of his reasoning powers. The difficulty in the introduction of languages is not that they are too hard for the pupil, but that they are too severe for the taxpayer. Three-quarters of the children in the Cambridge grammar-schools could get a great deal of good out of any one of the three mentioned; about one-twentieth of them would be much aided in their preparation for college; every pupil who had a foreign language would understand the use of English better. The difficulty is that foreign tongues are not so easily taught as spelling, arithmetic, and geography; good teachers in these branches are difficult to find for any institution; and if introduced on a large scale, languages require costly supervision. Hence it is much easier to intro-



duce a new language into a town having one graded school than where there are a dozen large schools.

No recommendation was made to the Cambridge school committee on other modern languages, but the sub-committee suggested important reforms in the teaching of English. In the first place, formal grammar lessons, including learning of parts of speech and parsing, are to be confined henceforth to the last two-thirds of the grammar schools. In the second place, set spelling lessons are to stop at the end of the first two-thirds of the grammar schools. In the third place (and this is one of the most important reforms), extended extracts from standard English authors are to be read in all grades side by side with the authorized readers, and in the latter part of the course to supersede them. Many of the modern school readers are excellently selected, and have interesting matter of good literary flavor; but they are choppy, and children, except in the last year of their course, have almost no opportunity in school to become acquainted with the great English and American writers; hence, possibly, the growing desire of Americans, in their home reading, to descend from short books to short articles, and thence to short paragraphs.

The next change suggested is in the teaching of geography. Political geography and his-

tory are thenceforth to be treated together as branches of the same subject. Physical geography is to be expanded and to be grouped with science. The details of the new course have not yet been worked out, but they will include, as fast as the means of the board will allow, the use of maps, apparatus, and models. Children are to be taught to look on physical geography as a part of the development of the crust of the earth, then to connect with the contour of the earth's surface the movements of the winds, and finally, to observe the effect of physical causes on the settlement and development of nations.

The last new subject introduced was physics. Here it has been much more difficult than in the other changes to frame the right kind of course and to fit it into the grammar-school system. The choice of the board was between two systems; they might, as in many cities, teach children to notice flowers, trees, rocks, and stones, to count their fingers and toes, and to compare them with the hoofs of horses and cattle, and then call that science; on the other hand, they might choose some one branch of science and teach it in such a way as to give children their first ideas of scientific methods and scientific accuracy. After considering all possible subjects, the board finally resolved to introduce experimental physics, the recommendation to

take effect after a year. The difficulties have proved serious, but not insurmountable. In the first place, some part of each building must be set aside for a little laboratory, and most of the school-houses are already well occupied ; it has proved, however, that the corner of an assembly-room, a lobby, or even an unused cloak-room, may be furnished with a few rough appliances sufficient for the purpose. The next difficulty is the lack of apparatus ; it had been estimated that to fit up the rudest laboratory, so that it would be sufficient for the use of a grammar-school, would cost two hundred dollars, and perhaps more. Experience has shown that sixteen sets of the necessary apparatus—sufficient to fit out as large a section as can be conveniently taught at once—cost eighty to ninety dollars. The necessary tables for sixteen persons cost forty-five to fifty dollars. The teacher's list of appliances and certain miscellaneous supplies cost about thirty dollars. One hundred and fifty to one hundred and seventy-five dollars will hence stock a suitable little laboratory. It was thought that the boys in the manual training-school would be sufficiently advanced to make most of the necessary apparatus, and the superintendent of that school helped on the system by constructing some necessary pieces, at the cost of materials. But the boys proved not to be sufficiently skilled to

make the accurate and delicate pieces required. The third difficulty was the lack of trained teachers, and it was met by providing special normal instruction in physics during two years. Of all the subjects proposed this is probably the most desirable, both for its training and for its practical applications. No other goes so far in suggesting to children to look below the surface for the cause of things; and no study is more likely to be useful to boys and girls who are hereafter to use their hands and their heads in any kind of trade which calls for manual skill.

The four new subjects thus proposed are English literature, geometry, physical geography from a new stand-point, and physics. The Cambridge teachers are certainly equal to the average of their profession. Before appointment most of them have had a high-school education, a normal-school education, and an experience of one year, preferably in the Cambridge training-school for teachers, which is part of the school system. Yet not many except the masters were prepared properly to teach geometry, physics, or physical geography. Some special provision for training in these subjects would have been necessary at the public expense, and it is doubtful whether the scheme, loaded down by such a necessity, could have been accepted. At this point Harvard University, with an un-

derstanding of the inter-dependence of common-school and college education, agreed to furnish, at its own expense, normal instruction for the Cambridge teachers in the three subjects named. The successful workings of this system will be described in the next essay.

It is apparent that the conditions for a reform in the grammar-schools in Cambridge were unusually favorable. The city has been placed in the midst of a long discussion of the subject, in which some of the grammar-school teachers have been engaged. The superintendent has been unusually interested; the school committee have given an amount of time and consideration to the subject which could not be secured every year. The teachers are interested, and the university has simplified the whole problem by providing for the necessary special instruction of the teachers. Furthermore, it has not been attempted to make all the changes which have been suggested by the New England Association of Colleges and elsewhere. Algebra has not been made obligatory. No new language has been introduced, and but two sciences, physics and physical geography. Most cities could undertake these reforms without serious additional expense; but every school board must make up its mind that the saving of time means, not that less money need be expended on the schools, but that a bet-

ter education may be furnished for the same outlay. It is estimated that in Cambridge five hundred scholars were spending an unnecessary year, at a total cost of about nine thousand dollars ; but under the new system most of those five hundred children would simply add that extra year to the top of their present schooling. The result will be an incalculable advantage to the community, but not a lessening in the tax-rate.

### III.

## University Participation—A Substitute for University Extension.

---

IN the history of Florence there was once a time when the only people who felt that they had power and security were the nobles, who, from their towered fortresses, looked down upon the multitude; there was another time, a little later, when those same nobles began to sue for admission into the great trade guilds which had become a power in the state. Much such a change is coming over American education. For many years the colleges went on their way with little reference to the secondary, and especially to the public, schools. Now, however, university presidents consult the secondary schools which furnish them with students, and are interested in every grade of education. The college men are now the neophytes, the apprentices, the learners, so that at the meeting of school superintendents in Boston, in 1893, two professors were present as official delegates of Columbia College. Per-

haps the most cheerful symptom in the present educational movement is the exchange of views by teachers from all sorts of institutions. It is a period of good feeling, of common interest, of mutual understanding, and of co-operation between the public schools and the universities of the land.

This is also a period of searching examination into the character and needs of our schools; and educators throughout the country seem to recognize three ways in which education may be improved. In the first place, the public calls imperatively for a widening of interest for the pupils: the fight on that point is apparently almost over; it seems an accepted principle that such broadening may be brought about by the introduction of new branches into the grammar and lower schools.

The second need, both for schools and colleges, is the development of training methods of study; the disappearance of the idea that we are trying "to teach pupils what," and the substitution of the idea that we are trying to "teach pupils how." To this demand the proposed new studies distinctly lead; for they can be successfully taught only by proper scientific methods.

The third and greatest need of the schools is that the teachers themselves be properly trained. The new subjects and the reformed



methods both call for preparation improved in kind and degree ; but everybody acquainted with the schools of the country knows that the teachers have too little training even for the old subjects and inferior methods. The body of private and public school teachers is intelligent, conscientious, and painstaking ; they are doing much, but doing it imperfectly, because they are imperfectly educated.

Of course this defect is not now discovered for the first time. Many years ago, Horace Mann convinced the tax-paying public of Massachusetts that the community needed normal schools for teachers ; we have now pedagogic courses in many colleges ; and special public training schools are established in a few enlightened cities. The inefficiency of these agencies is seen in the fact that primary, grammar, and even secondary teachers are constantly finding employment without any of these forms of training, or at least with no evidence of benefit from them.

This is not the place to discuss the reasons for the failure properly to educate the teachers who seek preparation. What this essay aims to do is to discuss the status of the teachers who now spend five days every week in the severe toil of the school-room ; to ask how they may have their horizons widened, their work brightened, and their efficiency increased. Not

that there are no existing systems intended to provide for teachers in service. Teachers' institutes do something in this direction, but their fundamental defect is that they are nearly all "pour in" institutions. The effect on the intellectual development is like the effect of going to church on the moral character: it is a stimulus, a suggestion, and an aid, but it is not in itself a religious life. More promising are the special teachers' meetings held in large cities; too often they also become a place for hearing some one else tell you "how you ought to do it;" there is nothing to work out, and little reaction of the teachers on each other. Another suggestion, which was repeatedly put forward at the 1892 meeting of superintendents in Boston, was that teachers most need pedagogic reading, and especially a private study of psychology. The suggestiveness of such studies is undeniable, but they are no more a normal education than reading a geometry is mathematics. Teachers need to acquire, to state, and illustrate principles. What they need still more is practice in properly applying those principles.

The only device which has been even moderately successful for teachers already in service is the summer schools; they furnish communication with a new range of thought, and with scientific methods worked out carefully; and, so far as they are practice courses, there is an

opportunity for actual work and for sharpening the faculties. Against the system there are several objections; it destroys the vacation of teachers and taught, and it involves an expense which seriously limits its usefulness.

A few years ago the magic phrase "university extension" flashed over the country.

Nor slacked the messenger his pace;  
He showed the sign, he named the place,  
And, pressing forward like the wind,  
Left clamor and surprise behind.

No one can deny the advantage to the public and to the universities of this helpful relation. It has had a broadening and enlarging effect; it has been a stimulus to many teachers. Nevertheless in several respects university extension has not completely justified its name. In the first place, a part of the work has fallen into a form which is neither genuine nor useful. There is a pseudo "university extension" which has behind it really no university at all, but simply a society, a journal, a seminary, a programme, and a lustily blown trumpet. When one hears of "staff lecturers," one sighs for a school-extension system to teach the instructors; for a staff lecturer is a person whom no university authorizes to teach its own students, but who is supposed to carry university instruction to others outside. Such a system

is nothing more nor less than a lecture bureau conducted on semi-charitable principles. In order to extend a university, you must have a university to extend.

In the second place, the university extension teachers are able in very few cases to carry on work of the character of that done within college walls. What are the characteristics of university training, if not the specialization of studies, the use of elaborate collections and apparatus, the application of a scientific method to all branches of learning, and personal contact with specialist instructors, masters of their particular subjects? To the popular mind, university extension means the carrying of teaching away from the universities to outlying communities; and it is evident that such courses must be divorced from the essential university spirit. They are useful, they are enlightening, they are encouraging, they are stimulating, but they are not of the university. Sets of ten lectures cannot be made educative in the university sense; the development of the subject in the mind of the student is an essential characteristic of university study; the element of previous preparation and training must also in most cases be wanting in outside courses. It is impossible to duplicate college instruction without duplicating the college and its surroundings.

The third criticism on university extension as a system is that it neglects its greatest opportunity to improve education throughout the country, in that it does not sufficiently provide courses for teachers. The members of that profession are, indeed, the most interested of the auditors of university extension courses; they make up a considerable majority of the hearers; and they are almost the only students from whom systematic work can be obtained. Is it not, then, reasonable that the time, money, and energy so generously poured into the movement of university extension should be carefully applied for the benefit of the class most inclined to appreciate its advantages? Is it not possible to devise a system which shall be rooted and grounded in actual universities and resident instructors, which shall require actual work of the same quality, if not precisely of the same kind and degree, as that asked of college students, and which shall interest the great body of conscientious teachers now in service? In other words, can we not find some practical means by which teachers of the public schools may come under the training influence of the universities, and through which the universities may learn how to contribute toward supplying the needs of common-school education?

It is, of course, difficult to lay down with

confidence the details of a scheme somewhat complicated and dependent on the co-operation of colleges with school boards, superintendents, teachers, and the general public. But it seems altogether possible to draw up a general plan of teachers' normal courses which shall be offered by colleges, and to which the name "University Participation" might not unreasonably be applied. It should be based on the following general principles:

1. The object should be training, and the training of teachers already in service.
2. The subjects ought to be those commonly taught in primary and grammar schools, with some reference also to secondary schools.
3. The methods ought to be active and scientific, including the use of apparatus, collections, and libraries.
4. The expense must fall in the long run in considerable part on the universities.

A feeling of responsibility in this matter has sprung up simultaneously in several different colleges. Courses have been offered in Brown University, at the University of Pennsylvania, by Columbia through the Teachers' College, by Leland Stanford, Jr., University, by the University of Minnesota, and elsewhere. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and probably other scientific schools, have established teachers' courses in science. From the

experience of the courses which have been offered by Harvard University is drawn much of the material for this essay. The system thus suggested is not at all the same as that of the lecture courses for teachers offered by many colleges; they have undoubtedly been instructive and broadening, but, like almost all the other devices for persons already at work, they are simply "fill up" courses. They arouse thought, but not action; they are extensive, but not "intensive," they are instruction, but they are not education. They make better men and women, but do not distinctly tend toward making better teachers.

The first point to emphasize is that university teachers' courses ought to be specific, and not to aim at a general all-round education. The purpose of a system of university participation is to aid the teachers to do, in a better fashion, what they are now doing; practical psychology might well form one of the special subjects; but psychology in itself is not a complete pedagogic education. On the other hand, the work must not take the form of simply furnishing the teachers with a basket of educational oranges which they are to deal out to their children one by one until exhausted. Several of the auditors in Cambridge have complained that in their training courses the instructors have given them a great many things which

cannot be used with their pupils. What else is the purpose of educational training, if not to put the teacher into possession of more than he can possibly use? No one understands better than the college professor the discomfort of poling with a class across the shallows of one's own knowledge, with the dread that some quick pupil may discover how nearly the instructor is aground. It is not the object in Cambridge to make out a course for the children and then to teach up to that course, but to put the teachers in possession of the elements of their subject and the relations of the parts, so that they may intelligently select for themselves that which they think adapted for their children.

On the other hand, we must cut our coat according to our cloth; the methods, so far as they go, must be thorough, but we cannot expect to get a great deal of time from teachers over whom the roller of the week's work is passing. Perhaps two to three hours' work each week, besides the exercises, is all that we can safely demand.

What subjects may profitably be taken up in teachers' training courses? Such as are usually taught in the grammar-schools. Mr. Mitts said, when asked where Dudley Chester got his Latin and Greek: "He had to learn *something* at Yale." So most of the high-school



teachers are college graduates, and it might be unseemly to suggest that possibly they are not all prepared in all the branches which they teach. The greatest need is in the grammar-schools, and for them the universities ought to make the first provision. Besides the advantage of establishing such a point of contact between the universities and public schools, university participation will facilitate the introduction of new subjects where they will do most good. This is the principle of the three courses established in Cambridge, for training in geometry, geography, and experimental physics.

The weekly exercise in geometry was attended by fifty grammar-school teachers. Some work was required of the class, and the instructors thought there should have been problems or other exercises in sufficient number to constitute a substantial piece of work every week. The course showed the advantage of special training for teachers who have had nothing but a high-school training in mathematics. It has helped them to teach algebra and arithmetic as well as geometry; it has widened their intellectual horizon.

A subject of even greater importance is English; probably none so much needs the intelligent co-operation and assistance of the most highly trained teachers in the country. The

public is demanding in the most unmistakable terms that children shall read something more than exercises or scrappy excerpts, and shall write clearly and vigorously. The selection of material, the succession of pieces, the methods of getting children to think about what they are reading—in all this teachers must have assistance or they will fall behind. English composition is admirably fitted for university participation, because it can be conducted with written exercises and with valuable criticisms before the class. What the teachers need is not a set of composition subjects for their children, but ease and facility in expressing themselves, quickness to point out ways of improving style, and a knowledge of helpful methods and illustrations. If other languages are to be introduced into the grammar-schools, it is imperative that the teachers should have some sort of contact with experienced instructors in the languages; but none of the ordinary means of training, except the summer schools, affords any sufficient preparation in either modern languages or Latin. Efforts have been made to meet this want by a Harvard course in English composition. Like the other courses, this was free to Cambridge teachers, and open on payment of a fee to teachers from other places. There were weekly lectures on English literature and fifteen themes a year. For the correction of the latter

the teachers paid a reader's fee of about nine dollars. The principal trouble with the course was the same as in some of the others where there was no laboratory exercise; many of the teacher-pupils did not keep up the written work, in which lay the principal value of the course.

Perhaps the set of subjects most suited to university participation are the strictly scientific. No one can really teach botany, zoölogy, or physiology, who has not had a practical training course, with illustrative exercises and laboratory work. The so-called scientific reading-books do not teach science. Kindergarten exercises instill observation; but the cutting up of plants is in itself no more scientific, no more botanical, than the excision of the tails of the three blind mice was zoölogical. Columbia offers a general course in the teaching of science; Harvard and the Institute of Technology have dealt intensively with the teaching of single subjects. The Cambridge school committee has adopted the principle of taking up one science in the grammar-schools, and pursuing it in a method as rigorous as the subject permits; the subject chosen is experimental physics, and in some respects the university training school in that branch has been the most effective of the series. It was attended the first year by twenty-two Cambridge teachers who were preparing to teach the subject in the following year; a sec-

ond group of sixteen teachers came up in the second year. The advantages of the university connection were here especially displayed ; the excellent physical laboratory used for college courses was opened to teachers ; they came into personal relations with an experienced college professor ; there was constant opportunity for discussion ; the teachers themselves were much interested. On the other side, the instructor freely admits that he has learned much from this class as to the difficulties of his subject and the best method of teaching it, and he has since worked out the results of the two years' courses in a text-book.

A quite similar system was pursued in the Harvard course in geography, to which about sixty teachers came once a week to listen to a lecture. The trouble here was that, while the university maps and apparatus were available for the lectures, it was difficult to suggest simple apparatus which is cheap enough to be furnished to the schools ; but the work has been stimulating and helpful ; the teachers have acquired a new view of their subject, and a large body of illustrations, and the instructor drew upon the experience gained from this connection with teachers in service ; he has since prepared a careful list of maps for school use, and another of lantern-slides illustrating geography.

The course in botany offered by the uni-

versity was followed by about seventy teachers. It was strictly a working course, the director applying the whole amount appropriated by the university to the employment of six assistants, and a college laboratory being set apart on Saturday for this exercise. The teachers paid about three dollars each for the material, carefully grown in advance, for their uses. The course has illuminated the subject for the teachers, and through them for the children whom they are now teaching.

Another subject for university participation is history and civil government. Teachers need to be made aware of the possible improvements in the teaching of these neglected subjects, and especially in the use of material on what may be called the laboratory method. A good course of this kind ought to give to a teacher a fund of valuable material and illustration, and a training in the teaching of history as a developing subject, rather than as a memory subject. The University of Pennsylvania and Columbia have both awakened to this necessity. The former has had a "Saturday Class" in American history; the latter a course on "methods of teaching history in secondary schools."

Mathematical studies, English, other languages, sciences, and history, are evidently the principal subjects which lend themselves to this method of treatment. To this list many edu-

cators would probably add high-school studies—classics, algebra, chemistry, advanced physics, and other natural sciences, and others would add formal pedagogy. It must not be forgotten, however, that the first purpose of the university participation is to come to the rescue of the large bodies of helpless teachers in lower grades, the persons who have most opportunity and the least preparation for the improvement of the education of the country at large. High-school teachers are already fairly provided for, both in preliminary training and in present apparatus; most of the teachers' courses now opened by colleges are intended for them exclusively. As for pedagogy, that is from the point of view of university participation only one subject out of many; if teachers learn how to teach geography or English or physics, they are getting a pedagogic education. Pedagogy, as such, should follow, and not precede, the special training courses, so far as the teachers now in service are concerned.

The methods to be pursued in these courses must depend in part upon the relations of place between the universities and the taught. Wherever possible, university participation instruction should be given in the university buildings. This is not a mere question of convenience to the teacher; it puts the teachers and taught into a different relation; it empha-

sizes the fact that it is university instruction of a special kind ; and it is absolutely essential in laboratory, museum, or library courses.

In many parts of the country the schools which need the help are not in the immediate vicinity of the colleges. In such cases Mahomet may go with some subjects to the mountain. History, English composition, literature, and possibly geography, may be taught away from university surroundings, provided they are taught in that rigorous scientific method which is the essential characteristic of university instruction.

Wherever the classes meet, they should be conducted by regular university teachers of experience. The work cannot be delegated to assistants, for a principal advantage is the contact with the mind of the trained instructor. Experience shows that such men are more likely to appreciate the difficulties of teachers and of pupils than are men less familiar with the subjects and less accustomed to deal with a variety of minds. To secure the services of such teachers is difficult, because they are always busy. This, however, is not so much a question of time as of expense : if the university has a sufficient teaching force, one man in each department can always be found for such work ; if college professors can, with great loss of time and energy, travel many miles to deliver lect-

ures in university extension, why may not these same men be secured for university participation? Besides the formal lectures of the instructor, he will naturally draw up a syllabus or list of topics such as is common in college or university extension courses. Perhaps the greatest aid that can be rendered by the instructor is to suggest illustrations suitable for class use; the expert in any subject ought to have at command a great fund of instances, and even of anecdotes, which would interest children. It may be said that such illustrations are frequently to be found in books; there is, however, a peculiar freshness in getting them at first-hand, and a distinct convenience in having them recorded in the note-books along with the general suggestions upon the question under discussion. For instance, in a lecture in the Cambridge course on geometry, the instructor suggested four different problems in measuring the height of buildings and the width of streams, and showed how each could practicably be solved with very simple and inexpensive apparatus. In the course on geography, the lecturer illustrated the stopping of the water-courses by new streams working into the side or upper end of a valley, by a little sketch of a river now flowing into Lake Erie, of which the branches all point away from the mouth; and which consequently once ran the other



way. The instructor may also aid the teacher by recommending simple and inexpensive apparatus and appliances, such as can easily be made by teachers or by school boys and girls for their own use. In other subjects, such as history and literature, may come in the suggestion of interesting methods for drawing out the children's inventive faculties. It has been objected that university teachers are not competent to judge what can or can not be presented to children or be understood by them. Possibly university instructors are a little less sceptical about the intelligence of children than other teachers; but experience shows that a discussion between two people who look at the subject from two different points of view, is likely to be helpful to them both, and that the result will assist the children. One suggestion which has not been tested, but which seems rather promising, is that occasionally the instructor should have before him an actual class of average children, in order to show how he would present a difficult point, and to elicit suggestions and discussions.

How far the instructors can do anything outside their lecture-rooms and laboratories is not yet plain. One of the founders of the Cambridge courses feels confident that he could enforce his instruction if he could follow it into the class-room and there make suggestions. This

is, of course, impossible with large systems of schools, because of the time it would take; and most school boards also would feel a natural hesitation in permitting a person not under their control to make official visits. A part of the service of the instructor might well be to visit teachers' meetings; or he could lay out work for such meetings and see that it was properly carried on.

An essential feature of university participation is to get a return in work and thought from the teachers themselves. The lack of such a reaction was felt by the instructors in geometry and geography in the Cambridge courses. It was not so with the laboratory course in physics; there the instructor was, with reason, much delighted with the alertness of mind and the disposition to do something which he found in the teachers who came to him. They were selected from about twice their number of applicants, and they included for the most part teachers whose previous success has caused their advancement to the highest grammar grades. The enthusiasm and freshness on the part of the teachers in that course suggests the importance of embodying laboratory methods of some kind in all the subjects thus undertaken. In such a case it would be desirable to apply some kind of final test at the end of a course, or rather it would be pos-

sible for an instructor to base on the laboratory work of each teacher a judgment as to whether that teacher ought to be certified as prepared to teach the subject which she had been pursuing.

Some provision must be made for the expense of such an undertaking, but it is no more difficult than to raise the money for university extension. The cost of such courses, if carried on in the regular habitat of the instructor, is much less than might generally be supposed. Radcliffe College for women is manned entirely by instructors and professors of Harvard College; and the uniform cost of instruction in that institution is three hundred dollars for a course of sixty exercises, with whatever collateral reading of papers and so on may be necessary, and four hundred dollars for a course of ninety exercises. There is no difficulty in finding university teachers, young and old, who are willing to undertake that work, partly for the money and partly out of public spirit.

A year's course for busy teachers ought not to require each week more than one exercise of two hours; that is, three hundred dollars or four hundred dollars a year ought to furnish one such course for a number varying from twenty to one hundred, according to the nature of the subject. In a class of sixty a fee of five dollars each would sometimes pay for

the instruction; in some cities, therefore, such courses might be provided simply by the subscriptions of those who participate. Fees tend to defeat a main purpose of the system, viz., the taking of one course after another for a series of years. The difficulty has been seriously felt by university extension, which has encountered the indisposition of the same people to pay year after year for the same general kind of instruction. Another method would be for school boards to appropriate a sum sufficient to compensate the colleges for carrying on the work. This solution seems difficult in Cambridge; the city is liberal with its schools and desires to improve them; the university is inclined to co-operate; but no money could be appropriated that would seem to be in any way a subsidy for the college. In some places such a scheme seems practicable, especially if the instructors come from a distance. In the city of Pawtucket, R. I., for example, such a system has been organized.

A third alternative, the payment for such courses by private subscription, is only a temporary resource. If the system is to be established in any permanent form, it must rest on the public spirit and generosity of the universities. They must do what they do for their regular students. "I think the best way," writes the president of a famous university

south of New York, "would be to provide such courses at the expense of the universities, and to draw in fees for tuition from those who have the advantages of the plan." This is not simply a case of *noblesse oblige*; there are certain very practical advantages which the universities would gain from such a plan. They establish relations with other systems of education than their own; they put to a more extended use the apparatus given them in trust for the advancement of learning; by improving the schools they help to broaden the whole community, and eventually to increase the number of college students. They are thus to become powerful agents to improve the instruction in the lower schools, especially in languages, history, and science, so that the college and university work may begin on a higher plane. Where high-school teachers have the proper opportunities and are willing to organize, they may do the same kind of work for the teachers in lower grades; but for the high-school teachers themselves, and for large cities, the work must be done by the universities or not at all.

It is plain that this system can be most advantageously applied only in the immediate neighborhood of large cities; but a study of the relation between the colleges and the cities of the country shows that of the fifty largest

cities, thirty-eight are within easy reach of a college or university; in those cities there are 1,300,000 children at school and 26,200 teachers. That is, one-ninth of the children and one-tenth of the teachers in the country could be aided by university participation. It seems a scheme which promises large returns to the country against a moderate outlay of money, time, and strength.

That the universities are willing to do their part in this matter is proven by many answers from the presidents of universities in or near cities to letters of inquiry; not one is unfavorable; several refer to successful experience. The school authorities must do their part also. It is not enough that one teacher here and there should avail herself of these opportunities. School boards must insist that no teacher shall be employed who remains a poor teacher on any subject where she has had the opportunity to perfect herself. Those who already have had a proper education would naturally be exempt; the teacher who is too apathetic to improve herself ought not to be retained. In Cambridge the school committee have required teachers of specified grades to attend the training courses in geography, botany, or geometry. The matter might be permanently arranged very simply by any school board which should arrange a suitable set of courses

with a neighboring university, and then should vote that after one year it would employ no teacher who had not a satisfactory normal training, let us say in geography; at the end of another year, to employ no teacher who had not had a satisfactory training also in English; and so on till every teacher had shown her ability to teach every subject which she undertook.

In spite of the many practical difficulties stated, and many others undiscovered by the writer, the advantages of university participation are obvious. For the schools, the system will facilitate, and in some cases alone will make possible, the remodelling of the curriculum; and it will add daily to the interest and efficiency of the teaching. To the teachers, the system promises a relief from the endless monotony of ordinary class exercises, and gives them a broader and surer hold upon what they are doing. The normal schools will be stimulated if it be found that their graduates are, in the power of teaching the ordinary subjects, inferior to those who have had the training courses. To the colleges, the system will be of great advantage; for the instructors will gain the clearness of understanding which arises from meeting difficulties suggested to the minds of others; and preparation for college will eventually be improved. To parents,

the advantage will be the better training of the children and the saving which will come from the harmonious working together of the different departments of education. To the children, it will be one of the instruments in building up character. To the country, it will aid in the advance of learning, for it will help the study of each subject from the beginning to the highest point of specialization.



#### IV.

### How to Study History.

---

“GOOD wine needs no bush,” and if there were need to urge the reading of history it would be a proof that history is too dull and unattractive to be read. We read history all the time, not only in text-books and formal histories, but in the magazines and the newspapers; history is philologically almost exactly the same word as story, and the world is as determined now as it was in the time of the Athenians “to hear and tell some new thing.”

History in a more formal sense has been introduced into many schools of every grade throughout the Union, and there has sprung up a literature of advice, suggestion, and illustration on proper ways of teaching the subject. Hence, wherever there is a good school and a good teacher, history is sure to be taught.

Nevertheless reading history and teaching history are neither of them necessarily studying history. What we learn from the atmosphere of newspaper gossip in which we are all

enveloped, even what we gain in the school-room, lacks the essential quality of study, because it usually means the acceptance of whatever reaches us from the first comer, the first book, or the first teacher. Learning by heart tables of dynasties, presidents, or battles, is not studying history. Brer Rabbit was always "studyin'," but study with him meant, not committing the statement of a text-book, but putting his mind upon the problem before him, considering how far he could depend upon the historical statements made to him by Brer Fox, and soberly discounting the oratorical flights of Brer Turkey Buzzard. The study of history, then, means the attempt to form for one's self an independent judgment upon historical events, a judgment based upon the most trustworthy accounts within reach.

In the study of history the first essential is that we should have before us not general history but some definite subject. Well does the writer remember his struggle to learn Freeman's Outlines, and ill does he remember any part of those Outlines, except the distinction between orthodox Christianity and Arianism—and just what that distinction was has escaped him at this moment. Such a book as Lavis's Political History of Europe is interesting, suggestive, and broadening, but it only attempts to describe tendencies and general results. For

purposes of study, a general history is no more possible than a general text-book on science, or a general treatise on mathematics, or a general history of all literature.

What subjects shall we choose, especially if we have no guiding teacher or sagacious friend to lay out a course for us? There used to be a current idea that any book answered the purpose; that Rollin's *Ancient History* and Josephus were intellectual nutriment even for boys and girls. There is a malicious Italian story about a condemned criminal who was reprieved on condition that he should read all of Guicciardini's *Wars of the Italian Republics*; at the end of the eighth volume he returned to the executioner and asked to have the original sentence completed. Many things that have happened even to Italian republics are not worth studying. On the other hand, the world has been full of great crises when men came forward and performed splendid deeds, made new civilizations, and built up commonwealths. Let us choose such great periods.

What are the criteria of selection? In the first place, since the field is so enormous, both in the period of time covered and in the number of nations which have had interesting history, we surely may find a few countries which by their central situation, their importance as leading powers, their influence on later civilization

deserve the attention of all ages. Let us choose, therefore, countries which have nurtured striking, strong, characteristic, and original men such as Themistocles, Sulla, Charlemagne, Luther, Richelieu, Cromwell, Bismarck, and Andrew Jackson. Let us especially choose countries which have raised men who summed up in themselves for the time being the nation's life, men such as Pericles, Augustus, Hildebrand, William of Orange, William Pitt, and Abraham Lincoln. Let us choose out of universal history the nebulæ of human events in which sparkle the stars of human character.

In the next place let us avoid wars and rumors of wars. Of all subjects upon which the human intellect can be employed military history is one of the least profitable. To follow campaigns on the map teaches military science, but it does not teach history. To know the names of battles and of commanders and the numbers of their troops is to follow the method of a worthy but wrong-headed teacher of art in a young ladies' seminary in Massachusetts.

"What is this picture?" she asked at an examination.

"It is a picture of the Apollo Belvidere."

"Where is that statue?"

"In Rome."

"In what part of Rome?"

"In the Vatican."

“ In what part of the Vatican ? ”

“ In the Cortile del Belvedere, second corner cabinet.”

“ That will do.”

Yet a knowledge of the ground plan of a museum is no more useless to the ordinary student than an acquaintance with the evolutions of a battle ; both are for experts only, except in so far as either puts us in the place of artists, or of the commanders of troops, and enables us to share their spirit and to sympathize with their purpose. Hence let us choose no period simply because it is studded with wars.

Yet, on the other hand, it is the plea of historical writers that times of peace are so dull and uneventful that the chronicle of a happy, contented, and advancing people has little to attract the attention ; while wars mark the conflict of great moral principles, the establishment of a new order of things. Some of them do so ; but what of the interminable annals of blood in India, wars in which one bad throne or dynasty simply succeeds another ? The victories of Marius over the Cimbri and Teutoni were decisive because they beat back the tide of barbarian immigration for four hundred years ; the battle of Tours was decisive because the great organization of Christendom stopped the advance of the great Moslem organization ; and Waterloo was decisive simply because it permitted the

nations of Europe each to work out its own salvation without the interference of France. The interest of the student is not in the day of battle, but in the days after, when the effect of the military struggle becomes evident.

The next essential is that we should study the history of people who thought. The ancient Germans were such good military men that they finally beat the Romans, but their history is of less account to the student than that of long-peaceful Switzerland. Above all let us study the history of nations that thought about government and law, because those nations have contributed to that stock of political ideas out of which our own government is built.

Perhaps we may now choose the history of half a dozen nations, during limited periods when the minds of men were most active. First of these in time, purpose, and importance is the history of Greece, during the splendor of Athens. The struggle of the Greeks against Persia is one of the noblest of all assertions of freedom against despotism, and has inspired hundreds of armies to stand resolute against great numbers. It is a period abounding in great as well as in despicable characters, a period full of romantic inspiration, prolific in political inventions, glowing with literature and art; a period which has had something to teach to every western nation. Then comes the counter

epoch of Rome the conqueror—that is, Rome from the beginning of the Punic Wars to the widest extension of the Empire. It is a time full of the overmastering power of organization, of combination, of the repression of excesses, of well-knit administrative discipline, of experiments in government, successful and unsuccessful. Next, chronologically, comes the period of the Crusades; though the military result was the defeat and almost the disgrace of the Christians, they restored to Europe an interest in literature and science, and began for the second time to unite the histories of Europe and Asia.

The next era especially worthy of study is the movement known in Italy as the Renaissance—the rebirth of literature, art, and philosophy. No period in the world's history more abounds in magnificent characters, such as Dante, Petrarch, Cosmo di Medici, and Can Grande della Scala. Of equal importance as a study of human character, and more interesting to Americans on account of its immediate effect on our forefathers, was the Reformation, the counterpart of the Renaissance. It was the reassertion of the idea that people's thoughts are not to be cut and dried for them by earthly rulers, or by spiritual potentates. While the English Reformation is to us the most interesting episode in that epoch, perhaps the

most instructive single period of English history is the struggle with the Stuarts, during the whole of the seventeenth century. Here began to take form those mighty ideas of free representative government which are the great political force of the present age. In this century sparkle many of the greatest names in the history of the Anglo-Saxon race; it is the time of Shakespeare and Bacon, of Milton and Cromwell, and of William the Third. French history is of particular interest because France has ever since the time of Charlemagne been a sort of nucleus of European politics and constitutional development. Out of that long, rich history the most absorbing period is that of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars, from 1789 to 1815, during which the French experienced almost every form of government known to man, from the despotism of a tyrant to the worse despotism of a convention.

Since the end of that crisis there have been two remarkable episodes in modern history. The first is the reconstitution of Europe, grouped about the unification of Germany. We do not realize that in ages to come the gathering together of three hundred mutually repellant German states into one nation, and of half a dozen Italian principalities into another, will be looked upon as one of the marvels of



history; nor that it has been accomplished by two of the greatest men of the last four centuries, Bismarck and Cavour. The other episode comes closer home to us; it is the establishment of a free republic in America, the long, slow-burning struggle against slavery, leaping into the flame of the Civil War, out of which a new nation has arisen with renewed power.

Having selected the period, the next step is to find the material. First of all some brief books are necessary, to cover the whole ground in a summary fashion. There is now such a supply of "Series" and "Eras" and "Epochs," of little books systematically taking up the history of particular countries, that on any interesting period a good "eye-opener" is readily to be found. It should be read, read carefully, and read more than once, so that the student may have in his mind the dimensions of his subject—but it is never to be memorized. Such a book corresponds to the architect's preliminary sketch. Then comes the process of broadening, the working out of the ground plan of the historical edifice. For this purpose the general student should choose such standard works as are recommended by teachers, or by such guides to historical study as W. F. Allen's "History Topics;" C. K. Adams's "Manual of Historical Literature;" Gordy and Twit-

chell's "Manual," and B. A. Hinsdale's "How to Study and Teach History." William E. Foster's "References to the History of Presidential Administrations;" Edward Channing's "Guide to the Study of American History," and R. R. Bowker's "Reader's Guide," give lists of books on American history, with some criticism of their relative value. In the better brief books on any period will be found lists of classified authorities. One may read history in one author; one can study history only by a comparison of various authors.

Just here comes in the value to the student of owning his books. There is no more useful adjunct to the study of history than a good, sharp lead-pencil, or red-ink pen, with which to annotate the margins of the volume that one is using. Very few books have a convenient apparatus of running headings and dates, and there is no better way of fixing attention than to put in over the page-headings the missing guide to the contents. An exercise still better, but which does not interfere with that just described, is to make out in one's own mind a logical analysis of the book as one goes on, and to write the headings of that analysis, point by point, in the margin. A third convenient method is to indicate the author's thought by underlining the significant words in each paragraph. These three processes,

consistently combined, accustom the mind to search for the essential thought of the pages before it, and to put into brief and significant terms an abstract of that thought. Whenever the student has occasion to use the same volume again, he will be surprised to find how the argument comes back to him through his own abstract. Again, one may enjoy in his own books that which would be a crime if committed on the book of another; he may write down his reasons for agreement or disagreement with his author. In the Harvard College library are the volumes which Carlyle used in preparing his "Life of Cromwell," and nothing could be more humorously characteristic of the writer than some of the comments which he has scribbled on the margins of his pompous authorities: "It was long after 'this'"—"Stuff!" "Error"—"Never above 6." If you must use borrowed books, then let your attempt be to return them as clean as they came, and to take whatever abstracts you can in a note-book of your own. The point of all this system is that by seeing, or trying to see, what is in the author's mind, you furnish yourself with that condensed outline around which historical knowledge must be built.

To keep such an outline in view is an easy task, provided one uses only one or two parallel authorities; but, as the student proceeds,

he begins to find that one book effaces another. The methods, the order, the proportions of one writer do not agree with those of the next; and the knowledge of men and events so laboriously acquired begins to dissolve in the very multiplicity of facts. This is the time for the historical student to make up some sort of written topical outline of his subject. He now knows not only what is important and what is accidental, but he has also in his mind a theory of how facts and events fit together. He is in the position of the architect who has decided what he wishes to place on each floor of his building; the next step is to draw in the partitions so as to divide off each enclosure from its neighbor. There is but one way in which a large amount of historical knowledge may be co-ordinated, and that is by keeping a sort of table of contents of the whole subject in one's head and arranging one's material in that order. If such a system is adopted, each new important fact fits into its place as it comes; and no matter how different the mode of treatment by a new book, the mind sifts out of it what is unfamiliar and assorts it according to its own system. Hence some kind of written topical arrangement is necessary, as one proceeds from book to book.

Of course much may be done by subdivision of labor; in a class of bright people, all study-

ing the same general subject together, one person may take up one phase of the subject, and another a different phase. For instance, on the French Revolution the first may take the revolutionary statesmen; a second, the Convention; a third, the army; a fourth, the navy; and still another, the revolutionary societies. This means that an assignment is to be made as soon as all the co-workers have the general period in their minds; then it becomes the duty of each member of the class to use all the available material upon his topic, and, so to speak, to sub-analyze that material until it becomes clear to him.

Long before the work has reached this stage, however, the necessity of taking written notes of some kind will become apparent. A very eminent American historian is accustomed to take his notes in a note-book just as they come. When the note-book is filled, he indexes it and begins a new one; when a sufficient number accumulate he indexes them all; and at last account he had more than eight hundred such note-books in his collection. His is, after all, a cumbersome system; it is quite as easy to take notes upon the most complicated subject in such a form that they will index themselves. Suppose that this eminent author in collecting material for his next volume—let us say on the War of 1812—should use separate

half-sheets of paper of uniform size and ruling. Upon the first half-sheet he notes an account of Hull's surrender, upon the second of Commander Rogers's first cruise, upon the next of the departure of Pinkney from England. Thus he goes on taking a fresh sheet for every fresh topic until he finally strikes a second reference upon Hull's surrender; the note on this point may be put upon the original sheet for that topic; and thus the recurring accounts will each fall into their logical place, where they may be compared. When one half-sheet is full another may be begun; when a sufficient number of half-sheets have accumulated to make it worth while to keep them separate, they may be laid together loosely within a whole sheet of the same size, upon the outside of which the general subject is stated. With a little practice it is not difficult when one meets a subject to find the sheet upon which that subject had previously been noted. As topics accumulate, a subdivision of each will suggest itself, and the sheets may be sorted and stowed away accordingly. Thus in the end the student has a bundle, not of disorganized memoranda but of consecutive material. It is almost a book in itself; it is divided into chapters, sections, and even paragraphs; and when the material for any literary work is collected the work is already half done.

The question of note-taking is perplexing at the best. Students usually take too many. They copy out long, exact quotations from books which are perfectly accessible, and which they could reach a second time if necessary. They do not know how to digest the author's statements and to reduce them to a brief form. If you are trying to get simply a good general idea of a period from the use of a small number of works, take notes in very brief form, with a view simply to comparing the statements and opinions of one writer with those of another, and at the same time of so arranging your notes that you may have a general view of the subject.

Shall the student use sources? Yes, if he has sources and has judgment. One may often get a more vivid and exact picture of an epoch by reading a few extracts from contemporaries than by going over a series of later writers. After one has digested a brief account of the Puritan Revolution and then has gone through Gardiner's careful and scholarly treatise, one would better read some of Oliver Cromwell's letters, a poem of Milton's, and Sir Harry Vane's opinions on government. It is very easy to overdo the comparison of standard writers; but no historical study is complete without the experience and flavor of original material which come from using sources; and no ordinary stu-

dent need expect to study such material carefully enough to disagree seriously with historians like Gardiner, who have used all available sources.

In a word, the object of the historical student is to bring before his mind a picture of the main events and the spirit of the times which he studies. The first step is to get a general view from a brief book; the second step is to enlarge it from more elaborate works, reading more than one, and to use some system of written notes logically arranged; the final step is to read some of the contemporary writers. Having done these three things carefully, the historical student carries away an impression of his period which will never be effaced.



## V.

### How to Teach History in Secondary Schools.

---

IT is not many years since the question, how is history taught in the United States? could be answered in only one of two brief ways; it was not taught at all; or it was taught perfunctorily from single text-books. A certain quantum of knowledge of affairs in the ancient world was imbibed by students of the classics; some people, old and young, read history for the love of it; an acquaintance with the past was thought desirable for the statesman; only here and there a choice spirit taught his pupils, in school or college, what history actually meant. But the methods common, even in the most advanced classes, are illustrated by an experience which a present professor of history in Harvard University enjoys telling. At his first recitation in history the tutor gave him his cue: "‘The fleet of Callicratidas was now double that of Conon’—proceed, sir."

The attempt to make history interesting to, and comprehensible to, the ordinary reader

may be said to have begun in America with George Bancroft's work ; the study of history has been greatly stimulated since the Civil War, by the eager interest of the nation in its own life ; and it has been made possible by the multiplication of text-books and elaborate histories. No good college now graduates any student without some attempt to teach him history ; a great number of the secondary schools have taken up the subject ; and it begins to appear even in the primary schools. Yet the precise end in view in most places is still indistinct ; the methods are frequently crude and tentative ; and the equipment is poor. The object of this essay is therefore to examine and compare the systems of a number of schools, so as to discover what is actually going on. Proceeding from the information thus acquired, it might then be possible to suggest some directions in which the instruction in history may tend, and some methods which may be helpful.

Only the secondary schools will be considered : The work of the colleges has been examined, and results published, under the direction of the Commissioner of Education ; while the primary schools are too numerous and the work too little systematized as yet to allow much useful discussion. The point of view of the writer is that of one who knows the

secondary schools in some degree by their effects ; who sees that the graduates of the fitting schools are often badly prepared or unprepared in history ; and who would like to receive them into his classes with some clear elementary knowledge, with good habits of reading, and with practice in finding things out for themselves. Some important elements in the problem require a more intimate personal acquaintance with the schools, their needs, and their limitations.

The immediate sources of information are the answers received from about ninety principals or teachers of high and preparatory schools ; and also a hundred and seventy-five statements made by students of history in college. The schools are representative because they are scattered over the United States, and because they are of every degree of importance ; but it is presumable that a large number of those who failed to answer had little to tell, and that the amount and quality of instruction in history described in these reports is much above the average. In the same way the circular to students was laid only before those who had sufficient interest in the subject to elect a course in history in college.

Three-fourths of the schools reporting, confine their instruction in history to a period ranging from one to two years ; a very few

carry it on during four, five, or even six years. The variation in the number of hours of weekly exercises has no special significance; the common practice is, three, four, or five hours or "periods." The combination of years and hours gives, however, widely varying results. The least total is forty exercises; the greatest total, eight hundred; as nearly as an average can be determined, it is about two hundred and forty hours, or three hours a week for two years.

Through the circular the attempt was made to discover the proportion of time spent upon ancient, modern, and American periods. The results show a great variety of practice. Ancient history is taught in some form in nearly every school, usually as a part of the preparation for college; on the average it takes up one-third of the time devoted to history. A little more attention, on the whole, is given to modern European history. American history is omitted entirely in half the schools, and, where taught, occupies less than half the time allotted to history. It will be seen that the total hours devoted to history vary from one-third to one-twentieth of the school recitation hours; the average in the schools reporting would seem to be about one-tenth.

More important than these questions of time and division is the arrangement of work and

the order of courses. Here are two schedules; the first is that of a large city high-school:

"First Year: 1. Lectures on current questions—one hour per week throughout the entire school year.

- |                          |  |
|--------------------------|--|
| 2. Historical Biography. | } Two hours per<br>week throughout<br>the entire year. |
| 3. Greek History.        |  |
| 4. Roman History.        |  |

"Second Year: History of England—four hours per week throughout one-half of the school year.

"Third Year: General European History—four hours per week throughout the entire school year."

In the high school of a New England city of 50,000 people the following excellent course is prescribed:

"In his first year the pupil is *obliged* to have Ancient History five hours per week for the school year of forty weeks.

"In his second year he *may* have Mediæval History and that of the United States for the same time, viz.: five hours a week for forty weeks, Mediæval for first half; United States second half of year.

In his third year his option is English history just as above.

"In his fourth, if in the college course, he *must* take Greek and Roman History as before."

Several different aims usually influence the minds of teachers of history: to teach the pupil

to know something; to teach the pupil to think; and to enable the pupil to pass the entrance examination of some college. Public sentiment and many Boards of Education demand facts; and parents expect "a good fit." It is therefore very encouraging to find so clear a perception of the essential in history as is shown by the following extract from the answer of the Principal of the high-school in a large Western city:

"In general history the attempt is made to give the pupil some notion of the 'flow' of history, its 'unity' as well as diversity, to bring out correspondences in different countries and times, and to knit the whole firmly together by constant cross-references and review questions. Special attention is directed to the experiences of older nations on questions of present importance in this country. In examining conflicting views the pupil is encouraged in the attempt to place himself for the time being in the position of the author discussed. In these classes the things mostly aimed at are local color, perspective, breadth of view."

An examination of the returns show that few schools have the facilities, the teachers, or the spirit for very much more than is required by the demands of the colleges. "The present temptation," says one principal, "is to 'read up' on history, simply because it admits of being done. No amount of that carries a boy

through Quadratics or Homer," and he complains bitterly of "the coat of many colors that the New England colleges force us to draw on."

Whatever the aim of a school, it is of little importance unless it is aided by adequate methods; and there are discernible three distinct types of instruction: the lecture system; the text-book system; and the topical system. The first may be quietly passed over; for not more than one-ninth of the schools have regular required lectures, and only exceptional teachers with unusual pupils can make it profitable in secondary grades. In others there are "supplementary talks;" or, to take a student's definition: "the teacher told stories." The text-book method is by far the most frequent. In fully half the cases no other instruction is attempted; only five out of a hundred and seventy-five students report that it was never used where they were prepared for college. In some schools, however, where the topical method is not employed, there are adjuncts to the recitation, designed to make the exercises more interesting. Such are "oral reviews," reports of the news of the day, discussions, or the reading of selections in class.

Since text-books are the basis of the work, let us look into the books. They are almost as numerous as teachers. In the ninety schools

reporting, seventy-six different works are used. There are thirteen text-books on general history, eighteen on ancient history, nine on the mediæval and modern periods, eighteen on England, and thirteen on the United States. Only fourteen of the books in the list are used by more than four schools each.

Perhaps a fourth of the reporting schools have put into operation some form of topical recitation; it has taken root but slowly, since a hundred and forty-six students out of a hundred and sixty-seven had never experienced it. The general method is well shown in the following description of the work in the high-school of a small city in New York :

“ In the General History classes the following plan has been tried with satisfactory results :

“ On Wednesday the lesson in the text-book for the entire week is given. Subjects are selected, covering the week's work, and one assigned to each pupil. During the week any questions asked by pupils are noted, and to these the teacher adds any that may occur to him. In this way quite a list of ‘ curious queries ’ will be made each week. Monday, the topics which were assigned the previous Wednesday are discussed by the pupils, each person being usually allowed all the time he or she chooses to take. Sometimes, however, a ‘ one minute ’ or ‘ two minutes ’ address is required.



" Tuesday, teacher and pupils bring selections bearing upon topics of the week, all extra reading being introduced on that day.

" Wednesday the time is devoted entirely to the text-book—pupils are expected to be thoroughly prepared on that portion assigned the previous Wednesday.

" Thursday the questions collected during the week are answered as far as pupils have been able to look up answers. All are anxious to have as many as possible and no compulsion is necessary. If no pupil has found answers to one or more than one of the questions, the teacher makes some suggestion as to sources of information, and questions are left for the next Thursday. Current events are also discussed on this day.

" Friday is the pupil's day, and each one prepares a list of ten questions that he considers a fair test for members of the class. (Pupils may select questions from any portion of history that has been studied by the class.) As the teacher designates two pupils, they rise and one asks his questions of the other, stating at the close what per cent. have been correctly answered. Two other pupils are then named and the same course pursued."

The advantage of the topical method is twofold; it trains the student to investigate and to think; and it encourages good habits of reading. The efficiency of the system depends upon the abundance and accessibility of books. Not many schools can equal the library of eighteen thousand volumes in a Central New

York high-school; and few happy principals "can think of no necessary book wanting;" still, about one-third of them appear to have creditable collections of books within their own walls; more than another third possess a few standard encyclopædias and histories. Eight schools depend wholly on public libraries, and others makes those libraries add to their own scantier resources. At a few places there is a small circulating library, made up by purchase or by contribution.

On the question how faithfully the books of reference are employed, there is a difference of opinion between teachers and students. Fifty schools out of ninety report a good use; only twenty-seven students out of a hundred and sixty-nine had noticed that in their schools the books were well used; twice as many had noticed the contrary; one had used them "only for amusement," and eighty-three had had either no books or no impressions. It appears proven that the reference libraries of the schools are in a great many cases too small or too uninteresting, or that pupils are not properly trained in their use.

Home reading in many cases doubtless supplies the lack. The taste for historical reading is easily implanted in the minds of thoughtful young people; about half the students who made out a statement had read at least one

standard history. The favorites are Prescott, Macaulay, Irving, Green, Bancroft, and—as the writer regrets to record—Abbott. About a sixth have read juvenile histories, historical novels, and various other books; nearly a third appear to have read, or at least to have remembered, absolutely nothing outside of their text-books. The proportion of readers is the more remarkable, because only about a sixth of the whole report that outside reading was required in their school.

In addition to oral recitations and the preparation of topics, about one-third of the teachers require written exercises. In class, the usual form is the preparation of written reviews, either on the lesson or on a subject studied outside. Occasionally teachers expect notes to be taken. Out of class, pupils prepare abstracts of paragraphs or of specified chapters; they write theses; they arrange genealogical tables; they make out outlines, summaries, and analyses. Two schools report debates as part of their exercises; and one has established a prize examination on the knowledge of American history gained by outside study.

Geography, the twin sister of history, has as yet but a cold reception in the historical family. Only about half the schools make it what it should be—an essential and integral

part of the study of every period. To be sure nearly half the pupils have had some geography; but it is very doubtful whether they have really studied anything beyond the classical atlas. A few enthusiastic teachers begin the study of each country with a description of its geography, or even adopt helpful devices such as this:

“Attention is called to geography by questions as to location of places mentioned in the lesson. Failure is met by drawing a map of the State containing the point in question, locating the special place, and several others. Pupils are required to draw State groups—for instance, the Massachusetts Group. This means to draw Massachusetts, with all the adjoining States, in one group, so as to learn its relative position, and to draw Massachusetts, the central State, in detail—the capital, chief places of note—mountains, rivers, in short, anything the teacher sees fit to call for. Drawing on the blackboard is required in some cases.”

A fair proportion of schools have an apparatus of wall maps and atlases; the more energetic teachers oblige pupils to locate places and to trace movements. Perhaps one-fourth of the schools require map-drawing of some sort, although the greater part of it is probably topographical rather than historical. A few use blank outlines, to be filled in by the

pupil ; or ask him to draw maps from memory upon the board. To judge from personal experience with many undergraduate students, the two things which the candidate for entrance to college does not know are : how to add figures ; and how to remember or represent geographical facts. Historical geography is still almost undeveloped in the fitting schools.

Here the doctrinaire may justly criticise the practical teacher, even without knowing all his difficulties. Whether the pupil is being prepared for college or for business or for home life, his education is of little value if it leaves no definite impression upon his mind. The colleges do not expect that those who come to them shall have a wide historical training, or shall remember a great many facts ; they have a right to expect that certain general historical principles may be taken for granted. One of the questions asked of the students was : " Did your previous study of history help you to understand better your college courses ? " The answers may be tabulated as follows :

" Yes, decidedly,"	.	.	.	.	7
" Very much,"	.	.	.	.	10
" Much,"	.	.	.	.	2
" Yes,"	.	.	.	.	42
" Partially,"	.	.	.	.	12
" In general training,"	.	.	.	.	4
" In general knowledge from reading,"	.	.	.	.	7

---

"Somewhat,"	.	.	.	.	.	14
"Hope so," or "think so,"	.	.	.	.	.	4
"Not much,"	.	.	.	.	.	7
"Very little,"	.	.	.	.	.	11
"No,"	.	.	.	.	.	37
"Not a bit,"	.	.	.	.	.	13
						<hr/>
Total,	.	.	.	.	.	170

Let us sum up the evidence from the statements of teachers and graduates of the fitting schools. In many schools little or no history is taught; where taught, the best methods are not always employed; where good methods prevail there is often a lack of books and apparatus; where there are the best facilities pupils sometimes neglect them.

If the previous criticism be well founded, historical instruction in the secondary school is not in a satisfactory state; pupils who are sent to college come indifferently prepared, and those whose education ends with the high-school are not well grounded in the elements of history. The defects are in part beyond the power of teachers, principals, or even school boards. Suitable text-books are lacking; trained teachers are not to be had, or are overworked; there are no funds for additional instruction, or for libraries and apparatus. Other defects are simply those of arrangement, and the efficiency of the work may be

increased by a little thought on the part of the principals. A more serious trouble is, in many cases, a wrong aim on the part of the teacher; he does less than he might do with the material and means in his hands. The attempt will, therefore, be made to point out some methods which require no considerable increase of expense, and which may be applied by any competent teacher in any good school.

In general, the schools give less time to history than its importance justifies. If the work be undertaken at all, pupils ought to be sent out with a permanent impression of the history of at least one country, and with some facility in finding things out for themselves. The requirements of the colleges are certainly no criterion of what ought to be taught. Three hours a week, throughout the four years' secondary course, is perhaps as much as can be expected, and is sufficient for a thorough and practical grounding in history.

How to divide the allotted time among the various periods and countries is a perplexing question. Ancient and mediæval history have a peculiar value, in that they present to the mind the workings of human nature under circumstances unlike our own; there is a further practical advantage in the greater abundance of good text-books. On the other hand, there

is a stimulus in the close connection of modern history with present events. If a great deal of time be devoted to the subject, ancient, mediæval, modern European, English, and American history may each be taken up separately. Where the time is limited, it is a clear waste to devote it to small "universal" histories, unless accompanied by enlarging comment. It is far better to study in a larger way the history of one or two countries: the United States and England are first in importance to Americans; then come Greece, Germany, France, Rome.

There are two well-known systems of arrangement of historical courses: the first is that of chronological succession, beginning with the most remote and ending with the most recent; the second is the German method of working from within outward; the child begins with his own town or city, then studies his district, then his State, then Germany, and perhaps finally arrives at the asteroids and the United States. The difficulty with the latter method is the danger that the pupil will leave off before he has learned how much greater is the world than his horizon; and in this country there are few good elementary books on local history. To begin with ancient history, on the other hand, means that a certain number of pupils never will reach the history of their own country. Per-



haps the best principle is to begin with that period which is most likely to be interesting and important, and then to follow immediately with the history of some country remote from the pupil's ken. In most cases the history of England or the United States is the best introduction. Where literature or art is systematically studied, a double interest may be created by making these studies run parallel with the history.

Let us now pass to the every-day work of the class-room. In all historical teaching the first principle to fix in the mind of pupil and teacher is the importance of accurately established facts: and the second principle is the worthlessness of detached incidents. From the beginning, it should be understood that a knowledge of facts is not a knowledge of history; that the text-book simply selects and groups a very small number of actual historical events, and that the essential thing is to know how facts are related, and what they mean when viewed together. There are, therefore, several co-related aims which the teacher must keep constantly in mind. He must teach facts; and for that purpose the text-book and recitation system is best adapted. He must show the relations between them; and lectures and talks will bring out those relations. He must accustom the pupil to assemble material for

himself and to test it; the topical method affords the necessary training. He must lead the student to think and judge a little for himself; the preparation of topics and outside reading will induce some degree of such independent thought.

The recitation system requires for its success a good text-book. The old-fashioned "school history," with its mass of unimportant detail, overloaded with military history, has rather given place to new books of two types. On the one hand we have the various "Young Folks' Histories," in which the "story" is developed. On the other hand is the class of excellent school histories which include the social and economic side as well as the political. The topical method has its special helps in the "Hand-books," "Pathfinders," "Topics and References," "Guides," and "Outlines," just now coming forward. For pupils who are likely to go farther, the "story" books are best for a beginning; for those who have but the one opportunity a more compendious book is desirable. In every case good and accurate maps are much more serviceable than illustrations, and the pictures should represent only real things and persons. The value of a book is much increased if it contain good review questions, especially if they group into new combinations the facts that have been acquired.

What is learned from the text-book ought in most cases to be confirmed in recitations, less as a test of faithfulness than as a supplement. The actual memorizing should be confined as narrowly as possible. A few things must be learned by heart and when forgotten learned again, to serve as a framework about which to group one's knowledge; without knowing the succession of dynasties, or of sovereigns, or of presidents, or the dates of the great constitutional events, the pupil's stock of information will have no more form than a jelly-fish. But these few necessary facts ought to be clearly defined as the sole memorizing expected. The story must be told in the pupil's own words. His interest may be stimulated in a variety of ways. Actual discussion or quiz is hardly to be expected from those who have only the foundation of the text-book, but the utmost freedom of questions should be encouraged. Photographs and pictures may be brought in. The report on the news of the day, common in some city schools, may often be made to hinge upon the lesson in hand. The reading of illustrative extracts, of other accounts of the same affair, or of a succeeding lesson, will add interest. In a word, the recitation ought to give the pupil something that does not appear in the book.

Nor should the teacher be content with di-

rection. It is his special duty to bring out the cause and effect of events : and it must be done by his words and not by the pupil's. The preparation is a severe task for a hard-worked teacher ; but if he does no more than to read one or two extended accounts of the ground of the day's lesson, he will have a fund of comment and illustration. Perhaps the ideal of teaching would be to make the text-book only the connection and groundwork for a series of simple talks with quiz and discussion. It is possible only with conscientious students : and the necessary control of the note-books adds a great deal of labor. In advanced classes, bright pupils may sometimes be trusted under careful direction and supervision to prepare a talk for their fellows. A very happy effect may often be produced by introducing some outsider into the class exercise, or at another hour, who shall give a prepared lecture on some subject illustrating the field of study ; in any town large enough to sustain a good high-school may always be found intelligent people able and glad to say something effective. This system has been admirably marked out in the highly successful Old South courses of lectures for young people, given in Boston every summer to audiences of hundreds of children and older people. The important thing to remember in talking or lecturing is that the lecturer ought

not to add an assortment of new and bewildering facts, but to set in order and explain the principles governing those already acquired.

One of the most learned historians in New England is accustomed to say that he no longer tries to remember any particular fact, but only where to find it recorded. American schools and even American colleges have been slow to recognize that the ability to find out what one wants is as essential a part of historical training as the ability to remember facts and to understand the relations between them. The topical method is an attempt to give instruction in research; and at the same time it is often a superior method of presenting facts. Its advantages are that it teaches the pupil to examine and use books; it throws upon him an educating responsibility of choice; it leads him to select the important from the unimportant; it obliges him to compare and collate authorities; it gives him the pleasing sense of discovery. Nor does it require large libraries, or a great expenditure of the teacher's time.

In one form, the topical system supersedes text-book recitation; the whole field is divided into successive topics which are prepared by all pupils; and the recitation is held on the subject and not in any book. But these themes may also be used as adjuncts or occasional exercises. In fact the great advantage of the sys-

tem is that it can be applied by each teacher to the circumstances of his own school. In selecting topics care should be taken to make them cover only one simple subject : questions should be avoided about which little definite information is to be had ; to a child's mind a negative result is a failure. Biography lends itself easily to this method ; any number of subjects of about equal difficulty may be found, and it is easier to secure a lucid, well-arranged report than on other questions. Where the topics are numerous, the teacher owes it to his pupils to give them a good outfit of specific directions and exact references : for an occasional theme it is an excellent plan to turn a pupil loose into a library ; but where he is expected to learn something valuable about his subject in a short time, he must not be discouraged by the mass of books : he must have his clew.

Where the topics are only occasional the following system may be found useful. Let the topics be given out in groups ; a set of geographical subjects ; a set of biographical subjects ; a set of narratives ; a set of military subjects ; and so on ; out of each group, set for each pupil his own individual topic. When the group is given out, a circular of directions may be issued or put on the board meeting the questions most likely to be asked and the difficulties most likely to arise, and prescribing a form in which

the answers are to be returned. Pupils should then be put on their own resources: as their topics are all different, they cannot use each other's work; as they are all of the same kind, a few books will suffice for their sources, and the teacher can more easily control the work. Some provision should be made for giving a little help to those who have, after honest effort, failed to find authorities. The return of the work in the precise outward form required should be insisted upon, because it is of such vast importance to be able to put information into a shape useful to another person: and the labor of handling the papers is thus greatly reduced. There is plenty of room for originality in the choice of books and the selection and arrangement of facts. Great care must be taken to prevent the pupil from simply reproducing what he finds in one or several books. From the very outset, the pupil should be taught always to append a brief bibliographical note, setting forth the sources of his information and giving exact references to volume and page. The selection of the best papers to be read in class may be a reward for diligence and especially for orderly arrangement and clear statement. With classes of any considerable size, the specific references should include several common books on each topic, so as to make sure that the pupil has the opportunity of

using at least one. Both teacher and pupil will find useful some of the printed topical outlines mentioned in the bibliographical note at the end of this essay.

The topical system, and good teaching of any sort, is dependent on books of reference. Every school ought to have a library, convenient, and accessible every day and all day. It need not be large; in most places, if the school funds are insufficient, contributions of books or money may make up a small collection. Pupils should be encouraged to buy books, and it is worth while to put into their hands a brief list of the volumes most desirable for them to own. The library should include at least the following works:

A good atlas of modern geography (Andr  e's or Stieler's are the best, and furnish most for the money);

An historical atlas; Putzger is cheap and good;

A standard encyclop  dia, biographical dictionary, and gazetteer;

Lalor's Cyclop  dia of Political Science;

Ploetz's Epitome of Universal History (for chronology);

One or two classified library catalogues (for bibliography): the most useful are the Brooklyn, Milwaukee, Peabody, Boston Athen  um;

Collections of historical texts like Poore's



Charters and Constitutions, and Preston's Documents illustrative of American History, and the various series of Leaflets.

The standard histories of each period and country studied ;

Sets of briefer compendious histories like the Epoch Series and the Story of the Nations series ;

Some of the handier biographies ; such as the American Statesmen series, Great Commanders, etc. ;

A few selected historical novels ;

Good illustrated books, such as are likely to awaken interest.

If books are scanty, they may sometimes be borrowed for a few days or weeks, and a working collection in some particular topic may thus be made. Where there is a library, it should be drilled into pupils' minds that they do not learn history unless they use it.

If a taste for historical literature is thus formed, it is likely that pupils will read for themselves at home. It is easy to suggest, in class, books that illustrate the subject under discussion. It may even be desirable to make out and distribute lists of general readings, parallel with the subject. In some schools pupils are encouraged to give the substance of their outside readings in recitation. The free use of books may further be encouraged by

clubs and debating societies, and by public discussions.

From the beginning of historical instruction to the end, geography should be made an integral part of the work. No teacher should expect his pupils to understand history without making clear to them the physical features of the country described. Fortunately there are good physical wall maps of most countries; and excellent and cheap little relief maps begin to appear. When we come to historical geography, there is a dearth of good atlases and maps. Whatever atlas may be used, the teacher ought to supplement it by a set of historical maps of his own manufacture. By using outline maps, which may be had on scales large and small for most important countries, and by utilizing the power stored in the minds and fingers of his pupils, the teacher may, in a few years, have a set of unique maps. No topical work is more interesting to the student than the preparation of maps. Elaborate drawing-rooms and expensive supplies are not necessary; a few cheap water-colors and brushes, and a roll of outline maps or of stout paper, are all that is necessary; and geography will thus come to have a new meaning by practical exercise.

The proper teaching of history in the secondary schools calls for no new, complex, or expensive, methods; there ought to be a good

text-book for a basis of fact: a good teacher to explain relations; a good library as a source of material; and good practice in the use of the library, as a training to the judgment.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE.—The titles of many books, pamphlets, and articles on the teaching of history may be found in Hall and Mansfield's *Hints toward a Select and Descriptive Bibliography of Education*. (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1886.) These gentlemen have added a few words of instructive comment to most of the titles. Recent articles on the subject are to be found in *The Academy* for June, 1886, in the *Moderator* for May, 1887, and in *Education* for June, 1887. The latter is by Dr. Francis N. Thorpe, who has also reprinted from *Education* a pamphlet on *American History in American Schools, Colleges, and Universities*. Hints on historical study and historical reading may be found in the *Old South Leaflets* and *Old North Studies in History*, prepared by Mr. Edwin D. Mead, in connection with the free popular lectures which he has directed; there are brief hints in Mr. George L. Fox's *Study of Politics in Unity Clubs and Classes*. (Chicago: Colegrove Book Co., 1885.) President G. Stanley Hall has also edited a book on *Methods of Teaching History*. (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1885.) Many of the topical outlines contain suggestions.

The most elaborate discussion of historical study and teaching is the invaluable treatise by Professor B. A. Hinsdale: *How to Study and Teach History*. (New York, Appletons, 1894.) In 1893 appeared the well-known *Report of the Committee of Ten to the National Educational Association*. It contains the Report on *History, Civil Government, and Political Economy*, which is a systematic little treatise on the arrangement of historical courses in schools, and the methods applicable.

The following works, containing lists of topics, in most cases with references appended, have come to the notice of the writer.

Charles K. Adams: in his *Manual of Historical Literature*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1882.

Charles K. Adams: *Questions and Notes on the Constitutional History of England*. Ann Arbor: Sheehan & Co., 1879.

John G. Allen: *Topical Studies in American History*. Rochester: Scrantom, Wetmore & Co., 1885.

William F. Allen: *History Topics for the Use of High Schools and Colleges*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1886.

Henry L. Boltwood: *Topical Outline of General History*. Chicago: George Sherwood & Co.

Edward Channing and Albert Bushnell Hart: *Guide to the Study of American History*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1895.

Hannah A. Davidson: *Reference History of the United States for High Schools and Academies.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1892.

[Charles F. Dunbar]: *Economics VIII. [History of Financial Legislation in the United States.]* Cambridge, printed by the University [1892].

[Charles F. Dunbar]: *Topics and References in Political Economy IV. [Economic History of Europe and America since the Seven Years' War.]* Cambridge: William H. Wheeler, 1885.

Charles S. Farrar: *History of Sculpture, Painting, and Architecture.* Chicago: Townsend MacCoun, 1881.

William E. Foster: *Monthly Reference Lists, Providence, R. I., Public Library.* Providence, 1881, 1883. [Out of print.]

William E. Foster: *References to the Constitution of the United States. With an appendix.* New York: Society for Political Education. (Economic Tracts No. 29), 1890.

William E. Foster: *References to the History of Presidential Administrations.* New York: Society for Political Education, 1885.

Wilbur Fisk Gordy and Willis Ira Twitchell: *A Pathfinder in American History.* 2 pts. in 1 vol. Boston: Lee & Shepard, 1893.

Albert Bushnell Hart: *Suggestions on the Study of United States History and Government, prepared for the use of Students in Harvard University.* Cambridge: Harvard University, 1893.

J. W. Jenks: *Practical Economic Questions.* Albany: University of the State of New York, 1893.

Henry Matson: *References for Literary Workers.* Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1892.

Martin L. Smith: *Brief Compend of the His-*

*tory of the United States.* Boston and New York: Leach, Shewell, and Sanborn, 1886.

Edwin E. Sparks: *Topical Reference Lists in American History, with Introductory Lists in English Constitutional History.* Columbus, Ohio, A. H. Smythe, 1893.

[Frank W. Taussig: *Topics and References in Economics VI.*] *Tariff Legislation in the United States.* Cambridge: Harvard University, 1892.

Frank W. Taussig: *Topics and References in Economics V. Railways in the United States.* Cambridge: Harvard University [1893].

Francis Newton Thorpe: *Outline of the Principles of Government in the United States.* Philadelphia, 1893.

George A. Williams: *Topics and References in American History.* Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen, 1886.

The list price of these books ranges from twenty-five cents to one dollar; any of them might be had in quantities for school use at a considerable reduction.

The following books will be found of great assistance in selecting a reference library, or filling up gaps in one already formed.

Lyman Abbott: *Hints for Home Reading.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1880.

Osmund Airy: *Books on English History.* London: Simpkins, Marshall & Co., 1886.

American Library Association: *Catalog of the "A. L. A." Library.* Washington Bureau of Education [No. 20], 1893.

H. Courthope Bowen: *Descriptive Catalogue of Historical Novels and Tales*. London: Edward Stanford, 1882.

R. R. Bowker and George Iles: *The Readers' Guide in Economic, Social, and Political Science*. New York: Society for Political Education, 1891.

Lynds E. Jones: *The Best Reading, Second Series, Priced and Catalogue Bibliography* [Current Literature only.] New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1882.

Charles H. Moore: *What to Read and How to Read*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1875.

Frederic B. Perkins: *The Best Reading*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1877.

Noah Porter: *Books and Reading*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1881.

I. A. Spencer: *Course of English Reading*. New York: James Miller, 1873.

William G. Sumner, W. E. Foster and others: *Political Economy and Political Science. A Priced and Classified List of Books*. First and second Series. Society for Political Education. New York: 1881, 1882.

G. A. F. Van Rhyn: *What and How to Read*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1875.

Justin Winsor: *Narrative and Critical History of America*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The publishers' prices of American books now in print may very easily be found in Leyboldt's *American Catalogue*, New York (3 vols.). New York, 1880-1892.

## VI.

### The Status of Athletics in American Colleges.

---

ONE of the popular delusions about colleges is the notion that college students are a race apart; that they have temptations quite different from and more numerous than those met by other young men; that they have different amusements, different standards—in a word, a different human nature. Those who live among students know that they are, in the main, very like their twin brothers at home or in business: they are not much wiser, and are as prone to do absurd things; on the other hand, they have more leisure, more command of their time, a wider range of interest, and a tickling sense of belonging to a guild of learning; so that, on the whole, they are more likely than other young men to avoid bad or vicious habits.

The same principle applies in athletics as in more important things. College athletes are not a peculiar genus of the *homo juvenis*; they are very like other strong young men. College



athletic clubs are governed by the same rules and principles as other amateur clubs. Yet there are some reasons why the interest in such matters is sharper where colleges are concerned, why abuses are more apt to creep in, and why attention should be directed more carefully to the manner in which college athletics are conducted.

The enormous and perhaps disproportioned public interest in college sports is made evident several times a year by the items and squibs of the daily press; and this is an interest which has grown up within the last thirty years. The enjoyment of sports is as old as the toys of Egyptian children, or the ball-game of Nausicaa and her maids.

Σφαίρῃ τὰ δ' ἄρ' ἔπαιζον . . . αἱ δ' ἐπὶ μακρὸν ἔβαν.

"With the ball they played, . . . and mightily they shrieked."

The contest of animal with animal, of men with animals, and still more of men with men, has excited Greek, Roman, and barbarian. There is no doubt that a stand-up fight between two trained men or bodies of men, whether fought with fists, rapiers, Winchester rifles, or army corps, or "interference" is the most absorbing of human diversions. In modern athletic sports, however, the contest is not usually against a man's person; our preference is still

for races and competitions rather than for set-tos.

This milder and manlier form of sport is due to England. While German youths still exercised with a sword and American lads with a trotting-sulky, young Englishmen ran, rowed, played cricket, and revived foot-ball and tennis. The development in England has been due in part to the ancient customs of the people, in part to climate, in great part to the schools of that country. School-boys' sports have, during the past fifty years, been carried into the universities and into private life.

To England, then, we owe the example followed in our outdoor sports; and in England the practice has been brought under certain generally accepted principles. In the first place, no sport among gentlemen can be directed against the life or limbs of an antagonist. To inflict bodily injury was the great object of the Greek boxer and the Roman gladiator. In modern days even in boxing to wound is to be awkward. For better security, almost all athletic sports avoid personal contact; players strike the ball, but not one another.

To carry out the principle of avoiding bodily injuries, and to make the game more interesting, a second principle is applied: the sports are all hedged in by elaborate rules. Every complicated game, especially foot-ball, seems to

the uninitiated an elaborate system of how-not-to-do-it. Strength, fleetness, and agility are to be applied only in specified ways. Here is an example, taken from the Intercollegiate foot-ball rules: "A player may throw or pass the ball in any direction except toward opponent's goal." Yet the sole object of the game is somehow to move the ball precisely in the direction forbidden, by throw or pass. The basis of the sport is always the tacit assumption that the game is between gentlemen who wish to win, but who accept and observe the limitations set by the rules. The principle that an umpire shall be provided has been established, but the practice is intended only to meet the case of a gentlemanly disagreement. Only under the intense competition of the last ten years has it been found necessary to provide double umpires, and to give summary powers of punishment where a player wilfully breaks rules; of late in the hard-fought contests of foot-ball a third judge, the "linesman," has been found necessary. The necessity itself shows that the standard of sport has fallen; that a professional spirit has crept in.

What is a professional? He is defined and set apart by the third great principle of modern sport. A sharp line is drawn between those who take up sport for their own pleasure and those who practise it for money. Here is the

statement of the distinction laid down in the rules of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States which define an amateur :—

“ One who has not entered in an open competition ; or for either a stake, public or admission money, or entrance fee ; or under a fictitious name ; or has not competed with or against a professional for any prize or where admission fee is charged ; or who has not instructed, pursued, or assisted in the pursuit of athletic exercises as a means of livelihood, or for gain or any emolument ; or where membership of any athletic club of any kind was not brought about or does not continue because of any mutual understanding, express or implied, whereby his becoming or continuing a member of such club would be of any pecuniary benefit to him whatever, direct or indirect ; and who shall in other and all respects conform to the rules and regulations of this organization.”

For so rigid a rule there are abundant reasons. A man who plays from a love of sport prefers not to compete with a man who has gained superior skill by making his sport an occupation. A gentleman has no reason for concealing his name. If a man's success in his calling depends upon his winning, or if his livelihood is at stake, he is more apt to break or to strain rules ; and the experience of the world has shown that one who receives money for

winning a contest may sometimes, by the offer of a larger sum, be induced to lose. Contests of professionals, therefore, are not so sure to be carried through on the merits of the competitors. Owing to this element of trickery, professional sports offer a field for betting and for other forms of gambling. There are hundreds of perfectly honest professionals, but in accepting money for their services they give up the element of personal pleasure, and change their sport into a task.

In America, boat-racing and games of ball are as old as boyhood, rivers, and town commons, but in the colleges and outside they were very simple and unorganized school-boy sports till about thirty years ago. Regular teams began in boating, and there was a race between Harvard and Yale in 1852. In 1858, the present president of Harvard University was a member of the famous Harvard crew which brought the first six-oared shell in ahead of a rival Boston boat.

The Civil War gave a singular impetus to field sports of all kinds. Perhaps the boys in blue brought home a love of fresh air and exercise from their marches and bivouacs; perhaps the German turnvereine taught Americans the use of their muscles; perhaps gentle croquet led to more active sports. In 1863 came the first organized games of intercolle-

giate base-ball. The sport spread throughout the country, and the college teams contended on equal, sometimes on superior terms, with the mighty and forgotten Lowells, Peconics, and Redstockings. The Canadians taught us football and lacrosse about 1877. Lawn tennis and bicycling came in a little later. Amateur records in track athletics began to be taken about 1875.

For the conduct of these sports there are numerous permanent and recognized amateur organizations. In all the large cities athletic clubs have begun to spring up, with expensive houses and apparatus; but the chief seat of amateur sport is in the colleges. Here are assemblages of young men having unusual control over their own time; here is a strong feeling of *esprit de corps*; here, out of the many players offering themselves, a first-rate team may easily be formed. Not one in twenty of the spectators at a professional base-ball game knows any of the players personally, or ever himself handles the bat; while in the colleges the athletic spirit is greatly stimulated by the fact that the whole body of students, and often of professors, feel a personal interest in the players. College authorities acknowledge, willingly or unwillingly, that athletic sports must be allowed and even encouraged, partly because of the sentiment that physical exercise

is essential for the most efficient use of the mind; and in the colleges are usually the best facilities for exercise as well as contest. No large institution of learning is now considered complete without a good gymnasium and some instruction in field sports; the college athletic associations are more numerous and important than other amateur organizations. In the colleges, therefore, the growth and effect of athletics are more clearly discernible than elsewhere.

The first distinct result of athletics, as seen in academic groves, is a considerable increase in the average of bodily strength. The popular caricature of the college student no longer represents the stoop-shouldered, long-haired grind, but a person of impossible biceps and rudimentary brains. As a fact, the most popular man in any college class to-day is usually a good student who can do something in athletics better than anybody else. The effect of this accepted standard of complete manliness is seen on men who never take part in athletic contests. The bodily vigor and health of students in the colleges have visibly risen in twenty years; the variety of exercise is greater; a larger number take exercise. Experienced directors and trainers apply scientific methods of developing the body. The Director of the Hemenway Gymnasium states, as the result of

more than four thousand measurements since 1879, that he has now a record of at least forty men in Harvard University, each of whom is stronger than was the strongest man in 1880. Of course, there is a tendency to admire muscle and strength for themselves instead of as a means of health or enjoyment, but the physical results of athletic sports are highly beneficial.

An equally striking change is the great development of skill in athletics. The famous base-ball teams of the sixties could not now make a run against a good nine; the records in athletics are constantly being broken. This skill is gained, however, at the cost of increased expenditure of time. Rowing men must settle down to their work in December, if they hope to win in July. Captains of teams spend more and more thought on selecting and placing players, on training, on planning campaigns. Hence, college teams far surpass all other amateurs, and are but little inferior to the most skilful professionals. The inevitable result is that, to the participants, the element of sport is fast disappearing. It is very agreeable to be recognized as a "star player" and to travel with a team; but any one who watches a great contest must admit that it is "sport" only for the excited spectators; the participants find both practice and match hard,



unremitting work. As the Dean of Harvard College in his report of 1893 says of the freshman: "If he does not surrender himself to football body and soul, he is abused for treating so serious a pursuit as if it were play." To suppose that the labor discourages men from trying for the teams is a mistake. Where one man gets on, ten try; where ten try, twenty play "for the fun of the thing;" where twenty play occasionally, a hundred are influenced to keep up some regular exercise. The standard of skill required for enjoyment in a "scrub" game has not been raised. Nevertheless, the great matches, especially in foot-ball, are coming to have the interest of gladiatorial contests; players are not there to pass a pleasant afternoon or to show their skill, but to beat. "It is magnificent, but it is—war."

Such elaborate contests cannot be carried on without great preparation and expense. In addition to gymnasium trainers, paid by the college authorities, many teams have coaches, often professionals. Another great source of expense is the training-tables; the board often costs double the ordinary rate, and the difference—sometimes the whole—is paid by the management. Whenever a team travels, it makes up a little array of players, managers, and attendants, whose expenses are paid by the organization. Men so solicitous to win, spare

no money that will insure greater comfort. The incidental expenses for such organizations are sometimes appalling: uniforms, accoutrements, the travelling expenses of managers and delegates, the keeping of grounds in order—these are but a part of the items. In the year 1893 for a single campaign lasting about seven weeks, the Harvard Foot-ball Association had paid out \$16,238.86, or an average of \$700 for every actual player; and Yale expended \$16,652.43. The same organizations received respectively \$23,500 and \$29,000, and the total receipts for athletics were \$51,000 and \$67,000. To turn over and judiciously to expend sums so considerable might perhaps give the financial officers of athletic associations good business training; but the money has usually been handled carelessly and spent lavishly. Here is a verbatim transcript of an account rendered by the treasurer of a college organization a few years ago:

#### RECEIPTS.

Subscriptions, season tickets, and	
other sources . . . .	\$2,917 69
Gate receipts . . . .	3,291 74
	<hr/>
	\$6,209 43

## EXPENDITURES.

Uniforms . . . . .	\$320 50
Yale-Amherst trip . . . .	371 45
Brown-Princeton . . . . .	318 36
New Haven (exhibition) . .	190 06
New York (Yale game) . . .	410 42
Umpires . . . . .	100 00
Printing, advertising, and sundries	3,443 94
	<hr/>
	\$5,155 72
Balance in Bank . . . . .	1,053 71
	<hr/>
	\$6,209 43

One of the most vexatious things about college athletics is the india-rubber inertia which makes it difficult to induce any treasurer or manager to keep full and lucid accounts and to take vouchers, and which sums up in "sundries" all the items that can no longer be remembered. Not very long ago, a perfectly honest young fellow, who had been asked to account for the magnitude of certain expenditures, explained in good faith that he was sure a particular bill had been thrice presented and paid; but he had taken no receipts.

As expense has increased, various moral evils have also grown. In all the older colleges there are men who receive from home more money than they can put to good ac-

count for their personal expenses. Among that class betting grows up; and the example is followed by a few who can less afford to lose. Betting on the field can be repressed by denying the use of grounds to the organization which permits it; outside betting cannot be so controlled, and, as it takes the insidious form of loyally "backing up the team," college public opinion is not sufficiently pronounced against the practice. Of late years, the custom has sprung up for bodies of college men to attend the theatres in the city where the great game has that day been played, and, by cheering, the waving of flags, and the interruption of the performance, to make their preferences known. An excited, irresponsible state of mind seems to be induced by the tremendous competition of the greater sports, and to be more marked in the larger cities.

A similar excitement manifests itself among the general public. The class-rooms at Cambridge and New Haven are nearly deserted on the day of the Yale-Harvard game at Springfield. In New York, on Thanksgiving Day, 1893, there was paid for tickets to the Yale-Princeton game something like \$25,000; and people in North Carolina mountain towns watched the telegraphic bulletin. Not even Patti can command such audiences or take so much money for one performance. The newspapers reflect

the public impression that the whole interest of the colleges is absorbed in gladiatorial shows.

To the evils just mentioned—irregularity, extravagance, excitement—there is added a still more serious evil, that of professionalism in college athletics. The first approach to the professional spirit is found in the few young men who become at least enrolled students in order to develop and exhibit their skill as athletes. No college ought to have a place for such men. Occasionally they enter late, and disappear at the end of the athletic season; more frequently they keep on, year after year, preventing other possible candidates from getting on the teams. Another phase of the disposition to make sport the end rather than the means is the pressure brought to bear on athletic men, who have graduated from college, to return and go upon teams. A further advance of the same spirit is seen in those students who accept from proprietors of summer hotels offers of board, and sometimes of incidental expenses, as an inducement to play during the season, and who thus come within the strict definition of professionals. Another step is to receive money for occasional games; and, finally, a considerable number of college students or graduates have accepted summer employment from professional clubs, or have become teachers of athletics, and have thus separated themselves

from all amateur organizations within college or outside. Some of these men have, by their practice of a sport, acquired the means honorably to clear off college debts, or to provide for a professional education. No one can complain of their taking money for their skill; but the moment a man begins to consider his skill a pecuniary resource the element of pleasure or of physical benefit—that is, the element of sport—disappears, and with it the purpose for which college athletics exist.

Serious as are the evils connected with athletic sports, the writer believes that they are more than counterbalanced by the effect on the health of the students, and by the opportunity given for working off youthful spirits in a harmless way. Students themselves are sensible of the evils, but the expectation that they would in their own way find a remedy has not been realized. Students' organizations are loose; college generations are very short; traditions quickly fade; and there is lack of permanent policy. Captains usually serve a single year, and each feels like one of the ten Greek generals on his day of command. It is almost impossible for one college to obtain any reform without negotiation with other colleges, and diplomacy enough to secure an extradition treaty with Great Britain. Organizations controlled by graduates do better

because they hold the undergraduates down to a definite policy. Hence those colleges in which the graduates have most influence, as Yale and Princeton, have proved upon the field and the river the excellence of graduate management. But the system is not very much freer than untrammelled control by undergraduates from the evils of extravagance, sharp practice, and wastefulness of time. The teams are better; the morale of the sports is little improved.

College faculties have been unwilling to take responsibility for athletic contests, and have from the first rather tolerated them as an unavoidable evil. They began by legislating against broken windows and broken heads. As it was evident that athletic sports were a vigorous growth, the next step was to make provisions for exercise by building new gymnasiums. In some cases physical examinations have been required, as at Amherst, or exercise has been made obligatory, as at Cornell.

Then came a time when it was discovered that students were making appointments which took them away from college work, or which unduly absorbed the attention of their fellows. A mild system of interference was adopted, with gentle rules as to time, place, and number of games. Some colleges, notably Yale, have gone no further, preferring to leave the

whole matter to students. Additional legislation has been difficult: any serious limitations have been resented by the students; and the smaller colleges have hesitated to take any step which might keep students away. Most of the larger colleges, however, have appointed Faculty committees on athletics, whose office has been to exercise moral suasion over the students, and sometimes actually to regulate. There has been little interference with student organizations. Money has been collected by subscription, and it has been a delicate matter to protect voluntary subscribers from their own agents; but with the present large revenues from gate money a system of audit has been found indispensable. In some colleges it is exercised by graduate committees. At Yale, Harvard, and Princeton by strenuous exertion, the organizations have been brought to agree to the appointment of a graduate treasurer, and to the deposit of surpluses arising from gate money, to be used for general athletic purposes.

The evils incident to the keen competition of intercollegiate athletics have received little checks from individual faculties. The trouble is, of course, that any restriction put upon a team is a handicap, unless applied to its competitors. Half a dozen years ago, therefore, Harvard proposed a system of general regula-



tion by the authorities of all the principal colleges ; but it was found impossible to get an agreement. For a time Harvard forbade her teams to play against professionals. That restriction was withdrawn, as tending to keep up an irritation between students and Faculty ; since every defeat was ascribed to the want of practice with professionals.

The futility of the restriction was shown by the fact that in the face of it the professional spirit steadily grew at Harvard and elsewhere. Evasion of the rules became more common ; men were brought into the colleges who had no serious purpose of study ; the behavior of men on the field was rough and sometimes coarse. The governing boards began to take alarm, and the Harvard Overseers, in the spring of 1888, came almost to the resolution to prohibit intercollegiate contests. At this point a committee of the Faculty made an investigation, and reported that "intercollegiate contests stimulate athletics, stimulate general exercise, and thus favorably affect the health and moral tone of the university." They suggested a mixed committee of members from the Faculty, graduates, and undergraduates, with adequate powers. That committee was appointed in 1888, and has formulated a policy of regulation.

The difficulties of restriction have already

been set forth. Since the principal evils of athletics are those of excess rather than of inherent wrong, they are hard to regulate by statute. In many cases, they arise from a neglect by the students to look after the details of their own contests, and such neglect cannot be supplemented by supervision. Busy faculties have neither the time nor the inclination to form and hold a consistent policy in regard to athletics. It is felt that athletic sports are only a very incidental and subsidiary part of college life, and that control of them requires the time and interest of professors who are better employed in teaching; and hence that they should either be unrestricted or wholly prohibited. Such is the argument of those who advocate the prohibition of intercollegiate contests. It seems to furnish an easy solution to say, "Let the boys attend to their duties."

To solve the question in this off-hand manner is impossible. If there were no athletic clubs or athletic young men outside the colleges, perhaps the matter might be one for academic discipline; if intercollegiate contests were less attractive to students and their friends, to graduates and men interested in the colleges, they might be relegated to the place they occupied twenty years ago, and again become simply an agreeable diversion for half-holidays and vacations. If athletics had not many dis-

tinctly bracing effects on the physical and moral tone of young men, the system of contests might be treated as an evil *per se*. If there were not at bottom a healthy moral sentiment among the students, opposed to professionalism and kindred evils, the governing boards might attempt to supply an artificial conscience. No votes of the faculty or other governing boards can permanently put an end to intercollegiate athletic contests at the present day, because nine-tenths of the students and at least seven-tenths of the graduates consider them desirable.

Can, then, no principles of limitation and restriction be found, which students, graduates, and governing boards will unite in thinking reasonable? Most certainly there are some such fundamental conditions which may be imposed. The first business of every man, whether in a bank, in a law office, or in a college, is to perform his daily task: students, therefore, will readily accommodate themselves to regulations intended to bring contests out of the hours of college exercises, and to restrict the number of games played abroad. Important contests at a distance from home, or in a city not the seat of either contesting college, plainly lead to irregularities and to interference with study; and the effects of the excitement thus induced extend far beyond the day of the

contest. Experience has shown that students are candid enough to admit the necessity of reducing the geographical compass of their sports. The first principle of regulation is to subordinate athletics to study. It would aid the enforcement of this principle if games were allowed only on the college grounds.

The second principle is that every organization of every kind which goes before the public as emanating from a college, or bearing its name, shall present none but genuine representatives of that college, and shall do nothing discreditable to *alma mater*. The principle applies as much to theatrical and musical performances as to athletic contests. No man ought to be permitted to sing, to act, or to contest as a member of a college organization, if he be under college censure, or if he be a student only for a few months, or if he come only to pursue his favorite amusement. The present rules of the most careful colleges exclude special students in their first year, and limit the continuance on a university team to four years. It is equally important to keep alive the feeling that the members of teams compete for the fame of their college, and not for any pecuniary gain to themselves: for this reason, students who have enjoyed a money profit from the practice of their sport must be excluded rigor-

ously, although their regular standing as members of the college may be unquestioned. Here, again, so soon as students clearly perceive how and why professionalism degrades amateur sport, they heartily join in an attempt to keep out professionals.

A third principle is that of publicity. No organization which, from its connection with a college, secures subscriptions from undergraduates and graduates, enjoys the use of college grounds or buildings, or appears before the public under the college name, has any right to conceal its accounts, or to refuse to the authorities of the college a knowledge of its methods, its system of training, and the men who are to make up its teams. The system of irresponsible handling of large funds, of irresponsible selection of players, and of irresponsible diplomacy with other colleges is one which acknowledges only half the principle of freedom. A boy chooses his college, but abides by its discipline. A student chooses or accepts his studies; but, in every college, his instructors require him to satisfy them that he pursues the work that he has undertaken. College athletic sports, as now conducted, are no longer private enterprises; much more than college societies they affect the good name and the efficiency of individual colleges and of college education,

and the college authorities have a right to know what goes on.

In applying the three principles above specified—the subordination of athletics, exclusion of men not representative, and publicity—the co-operation of students is essential, and is freely given. There is no want of good will, but a “plentiful lack” of good business habits. Somewhere in the organization of a university there must therefore be authority to require the observance of rules laid down under the three principles enunciated; and the judicious application of such rules requires the expenditure of a great deal of time. The detail will inevitably fall into confusion if not carefully looked after, for the simple reason that college students are boyish, thoughtless, and slack, and that college generations change quickly. The time necessary for supervision is well spent, if it brings young men to see the reasons for a punctilious standard in the selection and management of athletic teams. Penalties may be simple, and yet effective. To deprive a man of the privilege of taking part in athletic contests is often a memorable punishment to him and to his fellows; to deprive an organization of the use of grounds or buildings, for sufficient cause, will prevent the recurrence of the cause. Within the limitations suggested,

students should be left to control their own affairs and to make their own arrangements, without being troubled by successive petty enactments. Regulations should be few; conferences should be many.

In whom should the authority over athletic sports primarily be vested? The Harvard Committee on the Regulation of Athletic Sports is composed of nine members: three members of the Faculty and three graduates, all six appointed for a year by the Corporation and confirmed by the Overseers; and three undergraduates, chosen by representatives of athletic organizations. In practice the six appointed members serve for a term of years. The action of this Committee, or rather Commission, may be subsequently reversed by the governing boards, but during the six years of its existence it has never been so reviewed. The combination has proved singularly harmonious; and the undergraduate members habitually show a spirit of open-mindedness and conservatism which reflects the best sentiment of the college. A similar system has been adopted at Dartmouth, and suggested in other colleges.

This is not a perfect system, but it is suggestive of methods which ought to prevail everywhere. Athletic sports and competitions and intercollegiate contests are an established part

---

of the life of American colleges. The evils incident to them can best be met by judicious legislation, founded on a few reasonable principles, and by giving to students full freedom within these limitations. On the other hand, students must recognize and observe the public sentiment which protests against brutality and unfairness, wherever shown. If, at any time, it appear that college sports are not gentlemen's sports, then will be the time for governing bodies to choose the lesser of two evils, by prohibiting those intercollegiate games in which the bad tendencies most manifest themselves.



# Index.

## ADA

**A**DAMS, Henry, on the Capitol, 1.  
 Adams, John, as a teacher, 7.  
 Algebra, in Cambridge grammar schools, 40, 41.  
 Amateur, in athletics, 126.  
 American history, study of, 94, 106.  
 Americans, distrust of experts, 1-4 ; like Romans, 5 ; modern languages for, 41.  
 Amherst College, physical examinations at, 137.  
 Ancient history, study of, 94, 95, 105.  
 Arithmetic, in Cambridge, 36, 38 ; reform of, 39.  
 Art, study of, 78.  
 Association of Colleges in New England, 39, 47.  
 Associations, value of educational, 9, 20.  
 Athens, history of, 80.  
 Athletics in American colleges, 122-146 ; interest among students, 122, 128 ; origin of, 124 ; avoidance of bodily injury, 124 ; complicated rules, 125 ; "professionalism," 125, 135 ; amateur defined, 126 ; early sports in America, 127 ; effect of the civil war, 127 ; growth in colleges, 128 ; effect on exercise, 129 ; long training, 131 ; large expenditures, 131 ; poor book-keeping, 133 ; pseudo-students, 135 ; lack of responsibility, 136 ; relations of the college faculties, 137 ; mild regulations, 139 ; action of Harvard University, 139 ; question of prohibition, 140 ; position of alumni, 140 ; principle of non-interference with college exercises, 141 ; principle of *bona fide* students, 142 ; principle of publicity, 143 ; good-will of students, 144 ; athletic committees, 145 ; necessity of reform, 146.  
 Atlases, use in schools, 102, 114, 116.

## COL

**B**ANCROFT, George, influence on study of history, 92.  
 Betting, on college athletics, 127, 134.  
 Bibliography, guides to historical, 84.  
 Bismarck, in history, 83.  
 Book-keeping, in Cambridge, 39.  
 Books, convenience of possessing, 84 ; how to use, 84-86 ; for reference, 99-101, 117-121. *See also* libraries.  
 Boston, Public Library built by "practical men," 3.  
 Botany, Harvard teachers' course, 62.  
 Brown University, teachers' courses, 56.

**C**AMBRIDGE, college graduate teachers, 17 ; schools of, 25 ; primary schools, 30 ; reform of grammar schools, 28-48 ; Harvard courses for teachers, 57-63 ; selection of a science, 61 ; question of fees from teachers, 70 ; pressure on teachers to improve, 72.  
 Canada, example in athletics, 128.  
 Carlyle, his Cromwell books, 85.  
 Cities, possible relations with universities, 72.  
 Civil government, teachers' courses in, 63.  
 Civil War, influence on athletics, 127.  
 Cleveland, popular physician in, 4 ; former school-board, 23.  
 Colleges, professor of morals, 1 ; "education business," 5 ; vacations, 7 ; marriage of women professors, 7 ; pedagogics in, 8 ; training courses for teachers, 16 ; require trained instructors, 17 ; appointments in, 23 ; preparation for, 29 ; interest in secondary instruction, 49 ; advantages of teachers' courses, 73 ; history in, 91-93 ;

## COL

- entrance requirements in history, 96;  
athletics in, 122-146.  
Columbia College, Jefferson not of it, 2;  
influence of the faculty, 12; interest  
in educational meetings, 49; teachers'  
courses in, 56, 63; courses in  
science for teachers, 61.  
Columbian Exposition, educational ex-  
hibit slighted, 6.  
Congress, its opinion of scientists, 11.  
Cornell University, influence of the  
faculty, 12; exercise at, 137.  
Crusades, history of, 81.  
Curriculum of schools, teachers not  
consulted, 13, 33; reform in Cam-  
bridge, 35-47; enlargement neces-  
sary, 50.

**DARTMOUTH** College, regula-  
tion of athletics, 145.

- Democracy in schools, 34.  
Departmental instruction in grammar  
schools, 20, 33.  
District schools, advantages of, 32.  
Diver, Paddy, respect for learning,  
10.

**EDUCATION.** *See* colleges, gram-  
mar schools, schools, teachers'  
training.

- Educators, function of, 24.  
Eliot, President, "what does he find  
to do?" 5; on Cambridge grammar  
schools, 27; a rowing man, 127.  
England, Reformation in, 81; Stuart  
period, 82; example in athletics,  
124; history of, 83, 89, 106, 107.  
English, study of, in Cambridge, 35,  
36, 38; aided by study of foreign  
languages, 42; reforms in Cam-  
bridge, 43; Harvard teachers'  
course, 60.  
European history, study of, 80-83,  
94, 95.  
Examinations of grammar school  
pupils abolished, 37; of teachers by  
State, 19.  
Exercise. *See* athletics.

**FLORENCE**, government in, 49.  
Football, compared with teach-  
ing, 9; rules in, 124. *See* also ath-  
letics.

- France, importance in history, 82;  
topical work on, 87.  
Freeman, E. A., "Outlines," 76.  
French, in grammar schools, 41.

## HIS

- GARFIELD**, J. A., began as a  
teacher, 7.  
General history, difficulty of, 76, 106;  
time devoted to, 96, 98.  
Geography, study in Cambridge, 36,  
43; Harvard teachers' course in,  
62, 66, 68; historical in schools,  
101, 116.  
Geometry, study in Cambridge, 40;  
Harvard teachers' course, 59, 66,  
68.  
German, in grammar schools, 41.  
Germany, boys in, compared with  
Americans, 42; ancient Germans,  
80; unification of, 82; historical  
methods in, 106.  
Grammar schools, teachers little con-  
sulted, 12; place in education, 15;  
college graduates as teachers, 17;  
departmental instruction, 20, 34;  
reform in, 22-48; interest of super-  
intendents, 23; in Cambridge, 26-  
48; function of, 28, 29; question of  
separation of pupils, 29; length of  
the course, 29-31, "skipping" in,  
30-32; two grades in a room,  
32; democracy in, 34; old Cam-  
bridge curriculum, 35-37; four and  
six years course, 37; study of lan-  
guage, 38, 41; new subjects, 38-46;  
arithmetic, 39; geometry, 40; alge-  
bra, 41; reading, 43; geography,  
43; physics, 44.  
Greece, importance of history, 80.  
Guicciardini, dullness of, 77.

- HARVARD** University, experi-  
ence of Professor B., 1; the  
president of, 3; on weather-proph-  
ets, 10; faculty and overseers, 12;  
aids to Cambridge grammar schools,  
46; teachers' courses, 57-63; in-  
structors in Radcliffe College, 69;  
Carlyle's Cromwell books, 85; old  
methods in history, 91; first boat-  
race with Yale, 127; football no  
play, 131; athletic expenditures,  
132; effect of Yale games, 134;  
graduate management of athletics,  
138; faculty restrictions on athletics,  
139; committee on athletics, 145.  
High schools, teachers' courses, 71.  
History, teachers' courses in, 63, 66;  
how to study, 75-90; reading of  
75; teaching of, 75; study of, 76;  
must choose a definite subject, 76;  
criteria of selections, 77; avoid  
wars, 78; study people who thought;  
Greek and Roman, 80; Crusades,

## ITA

81; Renaissance, 81; Reformation, 81; France, 82; Stuart period, 82; French Revolution, 82; unification of Germany, 82; brief books, 83; suggestive books, 83; marginal notes, 84; written outline, 85; co-operative methods, 86; note-taking, 87; use of sources, 89; summary, 90; teaching in secondary schools, 91, 121; old methods, 91; improvements, 92; time spent, 93, 94, 105; distribution of time, 94, 95, 105; aims, 95, 107; preparation for college, 97; lecture systems, 97, 110; recitation, 97, 109; text-books, 97, 104, 108; topical method, 98, 111-114; libraries, 99, 104, 114; use of books of reference, 100, 112; home reading, 100, 115; written exercises, 101, 111; historical geography, 101, 116; maps, 102, 114, 116; practical effect, 103, 116; unsatisfactory condition, 104; ancient, mediæval, and modern, 105; centrifugal and centripetal methods, 106; value of facts, 107; bibliography, 117-121.

ITALY, Renaissance in, 81; unification of, 82.

JEFFERSON, Thomas, opinions on architecture, 21.  
Johns Hopkins University, impetus to education, 16.

KOSSUTH, criticism of, in New England, 1.

LANGUAGES, study in grammar schools, 41-43.  
Latin in grammar schools, 41.  
Latrobe, architect of the Capitol, 2.  
Lectures in schools, 97, 110.  
Legal profession, status of, 4; bar examinations, 12, 19.  
Leland Stanford, Jr., University teachers' courses, 56.  
Library, Boston, built by non-experts, 3; school libraries, 99, 104.  
Literature. *See* English.

MANN, Horace, on normal schools, 51.  
Map-drawing, in schools, 102, 116.  
Maps, use in schools, 102, 116.

## ROM

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, courses for teachers, 56, 61.  
Mediæval history, interest of, 81; time spent in, 95, 105.  
Medicine, status of profession, 4; choice of medical professions, 22.  
Memorizing, 109.  
Methods, cant about, 15.  
Military history, not interesting, 78.  
Ministry, status of profession, 3.  
Modern history, study of, 82, 94.  
Modern languages, in grammar schools, 41-43.

NATIONAL Educational Association, 9.  
Normal training, recent, 8; improvement in, 16; established in Massachusetts, 51; advantages of teachers' courses, 73.  
Note-taking, system of, 87-89; in schools, 110.

OLD South lectures, 110.  
Outlines, historical, 85.

PAWTUCKET, teachers' courses in, 70.  
Pedagogy, teachers' courses in, 64.  
Physical geography. *See* geography.  
Physics, in Cambridge grammar schools, 44; apparatus, 45; Harvard teachers' courses, 61, 68.  
Politics, lack of experts, 2, 3.  
Presbyterian government, 13.  
Princeton College, athletics, 134; graduate management, 138.  
Profession, of teaching, 1-22; status of learned, 3, 4; characteristics, 6.  
"Professional" in athletics, 125.  
Promotion, without examinations, 37.  
Psychology, study of, 52.  
Public opinion, interest in education, 20, 24, 50.  
Public schools, status of teachers in, 11; interest of colleges in, 49. *See* also grammar schools, teachers.

RADCLIFFE College, instructors' fees in, 69.  
Reading, reform in schools, 43, 60; historical, 100, 115.  
Reformation, historical importance, 81.  
Renaissance, historical importance, 81.  
Research, in schools, 111.  
Rome, Romans did not value learning,

## ROT

5; overthrow, 80; historical importance, 81.  
Rotation in office, 2.

**SCHOOL-BOARDS**, advantage of, 19; out of teachers' hands, 22; power of, 23; relations to teachers' courses, 70, 72.

Sciences, in grammar schools, 44; in schools, 61; for teachers, 61.

Secondary schools, qualifications for teachers, 17; history in, 91-121.

"Skippers," in Cambridge, 31, 32.

Sources, use in studying history, 89.

Spanish, little use for, 41.

Spelling, teaching of, 43.

Summer schools for teachers, 52.

Superintendents, should trust teachers more, 13; power of, 23.

Switzerland, historical importance, 80.

**TEACHERS**, profession of, 1-21; low popular estimate, 4, 11; often a makeshift, 6; lack of opportunities, 7; associations, 8, 20, 50; no State examinations, 12, 19; too much supervised, 13; conservative, 14; cant, 15; need of training, 11, 16, 50; well-off, 17; departmental instruction, 20; Teachers' Council, 20; lack of influence, 22, 23, 25; interest in reforms, 27; two grades at once, 32; of languages, 42; of physics, 46; training of, 46; institutes, 52; meetings, 52; study of psychology, 52.

Text-books, historical, for private study, 83; for schools, 97, 108, 110.

Thornton, Dr. William, 1.

Topical method in history, 86, 87, 95, 98-100, 111-114.

Tours, battle of, 79.

## YAL

Training of pupils, 50; of teachers by colleges, 16, 49-74; lack of, 104.

**UNITED** States. *See* American.

University. *See* colleges.

University of Minnesota, 56.

University of Pennsylvania, 56, 63.

University extension, as a lecture bureau, 53; not university work, 54; adapted for teachers, 55; substitute for, 49-74.

University participation, in general, 49-74; reason for, 55; objects and method, 56; should be specific, 57; time, 58; subjects, 58; geometry, 59; English, 59; sciences, 61; physics, 61; geography, 62; botany, 62; history, 63; high-school studies, 64; pedagogy, 64; methods, 64; place, 65; instructors, 65; illustrations, 66; connection with classrooms, 68; work of the teachers, 68; expense, 69; duty of the universities, 71; how far applicable, 71; duty of school boards, 72; advantages, 73.

**WARS**, not interesting, 78.

Washington, George, as a model, 11.

Waterloo, battle of, 79.

Workingmen's School, 33.

Written exercises, in history, 101.

**YALE** University, influence of the faculty, 12; first boat-race with Harvard, 127; athletic expenditures, 132; effect of Harvard games, 134; regulation of athletics, 137, 138.



# PRACTICAL ESSAYS ON AMERICAN GOVERNMENT.

By ALBERT BUSHNELL HART, Ph.D., of Harvard University,  
Author of "Epoch Maps," "Introduction to the Study of  
Federal Government," etc. 12mo, cloth, gilt top, \$1.50.

*Contents :* The Speaker as Premier—The Exercise of the Suffrage—The Election of a President—Do the People Wish Civil Service Reform?—The Chilean Controversy—A Study in American Diplomacy—The Colonial Town Meeting—The Colonial Shire—The Rise of American Cities—The Biography of a River and Harbor Bill—The Public Land Policy of the United States—Why the South was Defeated in the Civil War—Index.

"Dr. Hart demonstrates by this book, as we think no one else has so well demonstrated, the possible close connection between academic study and practical politics."—*Atlantic Monthly*.

"The book is a solid, substantial, and most satisfactory piece of honest work. The author has selected his sheaves with excellent judgment, and threshed the grain out of them to the very best of his ability. There is no eye-service in it—no paragraph written to round out an article or help fill the pages of a magazine. Prof. Hart has worked for his readers with a will, and there is no reader so well informed on the topics of the book that he will not find it interesting, suggestive, and instructive. . . . Take the masterly exposition of one of the most important—many people will say the most important—of American public questions, the exercise of the suffrage. It will astonish almost every reader that such a wealth of thought, research, and information can be compressed into the limits of such an article, and yet be interesting, clear, and indeed attractive."—*The Nation*.

"We have found nearly all of them interesting, and some of them suggestive. One quality that marks the collection is a refreshing surprise; we mean the entire absence of economic discussion. . . . Prof. Hart has opened a different field, and has given us some things that are fresh and bright . . . well worthy of perusal by the thoughtful citizens."—*The Critic*.

"Practical essays are difficult undertakings; it is hard to always distinguish between fact and theory, and to present the one effectively and eliminate the other successfully. Prof. Hart seems to have attained a high degree of proficiency in this accomplishment, and his 'Practical Essays on American Government' will commend themselves to statesman, citizen, and student alike. . . . The essays are all remarkable for the foresight and intuition they display."—*Nassau Literary Magazine*.

---

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., 15 East Sixteenth Street, New York.

## A GENERAL VIEW OF THE POLITICAL HISTORY OF EUROPE.

By ERNEST LAVISSE, Professor at the Sorbonne. Translated, with the Author's sanction, by CHARLES GROSS, Ph.D., Instructor in History, Harvard University. 12mo, 200 pages. With Index. \$1.25.

The title of Professor Lavissee's work is *Vue Générale de l'Histoire Politique de l'Europe*. (Third edition. Paris: Armand Colin & Co. 1890.) While giving essential facts of universal history, he aims, above all, to describe the formation and political development of the states of Europe, and to indicate the historical causes of their present condition and mutual relations. In other words, he shows how the existing political divisions of Europe, with their peculiar tendencies, were created. To accomplish this, it was necessary to begin with the history of Greece and Rome, which played an important part in Europe long after their death; then, to show the potent influence of the Holy Roman Empire and of the Papacy in the Middle Ages; next, to point out how these two great ideal powers were superseded by modern Europe, an organic entity composed of various states, new and old, most of which were dominated by the monarchical idea; and, finally, how, in the nineteenth century, the new principle of nationality and the power of the people have supplanted the old monarchical element. The ability of Professor Lavissee to compress the essence of a great event or sequence of events into a few comprehensive and expressive sentences, has enabled him to accomplish his difficult task with signal success. At any rate, this is the opinion of the Translator, and hence he believes that the work will prove useful to general readers, as well as to college students, in America and England.

\* \* *A prospectus with specimen pages sent on application.*

"This is an admirable little book, and Dr. Gross, in selecting and translating it, has rendered good service to historical education. M. Lavissee, who is known by his recent work on the history of Prussia, brings to the difficult task here achieved accurate knowledge combined with a fine sense of proportion and value, and much skill in tracing the movements of great currents under the crisscross play of local and momentary surface commotion. He writes for the most part quite simply and clearly, with a true conversational ease, so that the reader comes to think the writing of philosophical history the easiest thing in the world; yet if any one will try to express in no more pages than suffice for M. Lavissee the nature of the Roman Empire, or the rise of Christianity, or the growth of Prussian power or French nationality, he may not be readily satisfied with the result. With all its ease the style has a nervous suggestiveness provocative of thought, so that the book is one of those that repay a second reading better than the first, and a third better than the second. If Professor Lavissee lectures thus, his hearers must be accounted fortunate. . . . The translation adheres closely to the original, which it presents in style as well as in meaning."—*The Nation*, New York.

\* \* *For other books dealing with Political History, see Longmans, Green, & Co's Catalogue of Educational Works.*

---

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., 15 East Sixteenth Street, New York.

## EPOCHS OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

MESSRS. LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO. have the pleasure to state that they are now publishing a short series of books treating of the history of America, under the general title EPOCHS OF AMERICAN HISTORY. The series is under the editorship of DR. ALBERT BUSHNELL HART, Assistant Professor of History in Harvard College, who has also prepared all the maps for the several volumes. Each volume contains about 300 pages, similar in size and style to the page of the volumes in Messrs. Longmans' series, 'Epochs of Modern History,' with full marginal analysis, working bibliographies, maps, and index. The volumes are issued separately, and each is complete in itself. The volumes now ready provide a continuous history of the United States from the foundation of the Colonies to the present time, suited to and intended for class-use as well as for general reading and reference.

*\*\* The volumes of this series already issued have been adopted for use as textbooks in nearly all the leading Colleges and in many Normal Schools and other institutions. A prospectus, showing Contents and scope of each volume, specimen pages, etc., will be sent on application to the Publishers.*

### I. THE COLONIES, 1492-1750.

By REUBEN GOLD THWAITES, Secretary of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin; author of "Historic Waterways," etc. With four colored maps. pp. xviii.-301. Cloth. \$1.25.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

"I beg leave to acknowledge your courtesy in sending me a copy of the first volume in the series of 'Epochs of American History,' which I have read with great interest and satisfaction. I am pleased, as everyone must be, with the mechanical execution of the book, with the maps, and with the fresh and valuable 'Suggestions' and 'References.' . . . The work itself appears to me to be quite remarkable for its comprehensiveness, and it presents a vast array of subjects in a way that is admirably fair, clear and orderly."—Professor MOSES COIT TYLER, Ithaca, N. Y.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE.

"It is just the book needed for college students, not too brief to be uninteresting, admirable in its plan, and well furnished with references to accessible authorities."—Professor RICHARD A. RICE, Williamstown, Mass.

VASSAR COLLEGE.

"Perhaps the best recommendation of 'Thwaites' American Colonies' is the fact that the day after it was received I ordered copies for class-room use. The book is admirable."—Professor LUCY M. SALMON, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

"All that could be desired. This volume is more like a fair treatment of the whole subject of the colonies than any work of the sort yet produced."

—*The Critic.*

"The subject is virtually a fresh one as approached by Mr. Thwaites. It is a pleasure to call especial attention to some most helpful bibliographical notes provided at the head of each chapter."—*The Nation.*

---

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., 15 East Sixteenth Street, New York.



EPOCHS OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

II. FORMATION OF THE UNION, 1750-1829.

By ALBERT BUSHNELL HART, PH.D. Assistant Professor of History in Harvard University, Member of the Massachusetts Historical Society, Author of "Introduction to the Study of Federal Government," "Epoch Maps," etc. With five colored maps. pp. xx.-278. Cloth. \$1.25.

The second volume of the EPOCHS OF AMERICAN HISTORY aims to follow out the principles laid down for "THE COLONIES,"—the study of causes rather than of events, the development of the American nation out of scattered and inharmonious colonies. The throwing off of English control, the growth out of narrow political conditions, the struggle against foreign domination, and the extension of popular government, are all parts of the uninterrupted process of the Formation of the Union.

LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY.

"The large and sweeping treatment of the subject, which shows the true relations of the events preceding and following the revolution, to the revolution itself, is a real addition to the literature of the subject; while the bibliography prefixed to each chapter, adds incalculably to the value of the work."—MARY SHELDON BARNES, Palo Alto, Cal.

"It is a careful and conscientious study of the period and its events, and should find a place among the text-books of our public schools."

—*Boston Transcript*.

"Professor Hart has compressed a vast deal of information into his volume, and makes many things most clear and striking. His maps, showing the territorial growth of the United States, are extremely interesting."

—*New York Times*.

"... The causes of the Revolution are clearly and cleverly condensed into a few pages. ... The maps in the work are singularly useful even to adults. There are five of these, which are alone worth the price of the volume."

—*Magazine of American History*.

"The formation period of our nation is treated with much care and with great precision. Each chapter is prefaced with copious references to authorities, which are valuable to the student who desires to pursue his reading more extensively. There are five valuable maps showing the growth of our country by successive stages and repeated acquisition of territory."

—*Boston Advertiser*.

"Dr. Hart is not only a master of the art of condensation, ... he is what is even of greater importance, an interpreter of history. He perceives the logic of historic events; hence, in his condensation, he does not neglect proportion, and more than once he gives the student valuable clues to the solution of historical problems."—*Atlantic Monthly*.

"A valuable volume of a valuable series. The author has written with a full knowledge of his subject, and we have little to say except in praise."

—*English Historical Review*.

---

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., 15 East Sixteenth Street, New York.

EPOCHS OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

III. DIVISION AND RE-UNION, 1829-1889.

By WOODROW WILSON, Ph D., LL.D., Professor of Jurisprudence in Princeton College; Author of "Congressional Government," "The State—Elements of Historical and Practical Politics," etc., etc. With five colored Maps. 346 pages. Cloth, \$1.25.

"We regret that we have not space for more quotations from this uncommonly strong, impartial, interesting book. Giving only enough facts to elucidate the matter discussed, it omits no important questions. It furnishes the reader clear-cut views of the right and the wrong of them all. It gives admirable pen-portraits of the great personages of the period with as much freedom from bias, and as much pains to be just, as if the author were delineating Pericles, or Alcibiades, Sulla, or Cæsar. Dr. Wilson has earned the gratitude of seekers after truth by his masterly production."—*N. C. University Magazine*.

"This admirable little volume is one of the few books which nearly meet our ideal of history. It is causal history in the truest sense, tracing the workings of latent influences and far-reaching conditions of their outcome in striking fact, yet the whole current of events is kept in view, and the great personalities of the time, the nerve-centers of history, live intensely and in due proportion in these pages. We do not know the equal of this book for a brief and trustworthy, and, at the same time, a brilliantly written and sufficient history of these sixty years. We heartily commend it, not only for general reading, but as an admirable text-book."—*Post-Graduate and Wooster Quarterly*.

"Considered as a general history of the United States from 1829 to 1889, his book is marked by excellent sense of proportion, extensive knowledge, impartiality of judgment, unusual power of summarizing, and an acute political sense. Few writers can more vividly set forth the views of parties."

—*Atlantic Monthly*.

"Students of United States history may thank Mr. Wilson for an extremely clear and careful rendering of a period very difficult to handle . . . they will find themselves materially aided in easy comprehension of the political situation of the country by the excellent maps."—*N. Y. Times*.

"Professor Wilson writes in a clear and forcible style. . . . The bibliographical references at the head of each chapter are both well selected and well arranged, and add greatly to the value of the work, which appears to be especially designed for use in instruction in colleges and preparatory schools."

—*Yale Review*.

"It is written in a style admirably clear, vigorous, and attractive, a thorough grasp of the subject is shown, and the development of the theme is lucid and orderly, while the tone is judicial and fair, and the deductions sensible and dispassionate—so far as we can see. . . . It would be difficult to construct a better manual of the subject than this, and it adds greatly to the value of this useful series."—*Hartford Courant*.

" . . . One of the most valuable historical works that has appeared in many years. The delicate period of our country's history, with which this work is largely taken up, is treated by the author with an impartiality that is almost unique."—*Columbia Law Times*.

---

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., 15 East Sixteenth Street, New York.

## ENGLISH HISTORY FOR AMERICANS.

By THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON, Author of "Young Folks' History of the United States," etc., and EDWARD CHANNING, Assistant Professor of History in Harvard University. With 77 Illustrations, 6 Colored Maps, Bibliography, a Chronological Table of Contents, and Index. 12mo. Pp. xxxii-334. Teachers' price, \$1.20.

The name "English History for Americans," which suggests the key-note of this book, is based on the simple fact that it is not the practice of American readers, old or young, to give to English history more than a limited portion of their hours of study. . . . It seems clear that such readers will use their time to the best advantage if they devote it mainly to those events in English annals which have had the most direct influence on the history and institutions of their own land. . . . The authors of this book have therefore boldly ventured to modify in their narrative the accustomed scale of proportion; while it has been their wish, in the treatment of every detail, to accept the best result of modern English investigation, and especially to avoid all unfair or one-sided judgments. . . . *Extracts from Author's Preface.*

DR. W. T. HARRIS, U. S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

"I take great pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of the book, and believe it to be the best introduction to English history hitherto made for the use of schools. It is just what is needed in the school and in the family. It is the first history of England that I have seen which gives proper attention to sociology and the evolution of political ideas, without neglecting what is picturesque and interesting to the popular taste. The device of placing the four historical maps at the beginning and end deserves special mention for its convenience. Allow me to congratulate you on the publication of so excellent a text-book."

ROXBURY LATIN SCHOOL.

". . . The most noticeable and commendable feature in the book seems to be its Unity. . . . I felt the same reluctance to lay the volume down . . . that one experiences in reading a great play or a well-constructed novel. Several things besides the unity conspire thus seductively to lead the reader on. The page is open and attractive, the chapters are short, the type is large and clear, the pictures are well chosen and significant, a surprising number of anecdotes told in a crisp and masterful manner throw valuable side-lights on the main narrative; the philosophy of history is undeniably there, but sugar-coated, and the graceful style would do credit to a Macaulay. I shall immediately recommend it for use in our school."—DR. D. O. S. LOWELL.

LAWRENCEVILLE SCHOOL.

"In answer to your note of February 23d I beg to say that we have introduced your Higginson's English History into our graduating class and are much pleased with it. Therefore whatever endorsement I, as a member of the Committee of Ten, could give the book has already been given by my action in placing it in our classes."—JAMES C. MACKENZIE, Lawrenceville, N. J.

ANN ARBOR HIGH SCHOOL.

"It seems to me the book will do for English history in this country what the 'Young Folks' History of the United States' has done for the history of our own country—and I consider this high praise."

—T. G. PATTENGILL, Ann Arbor, Mich.

---

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO., 15 East Sixteenth Street, New York.







H325S

Hart

Studies in American education

Hart / Studies in

## American education



3 0005 00020387 0

DISE

FORM 109

